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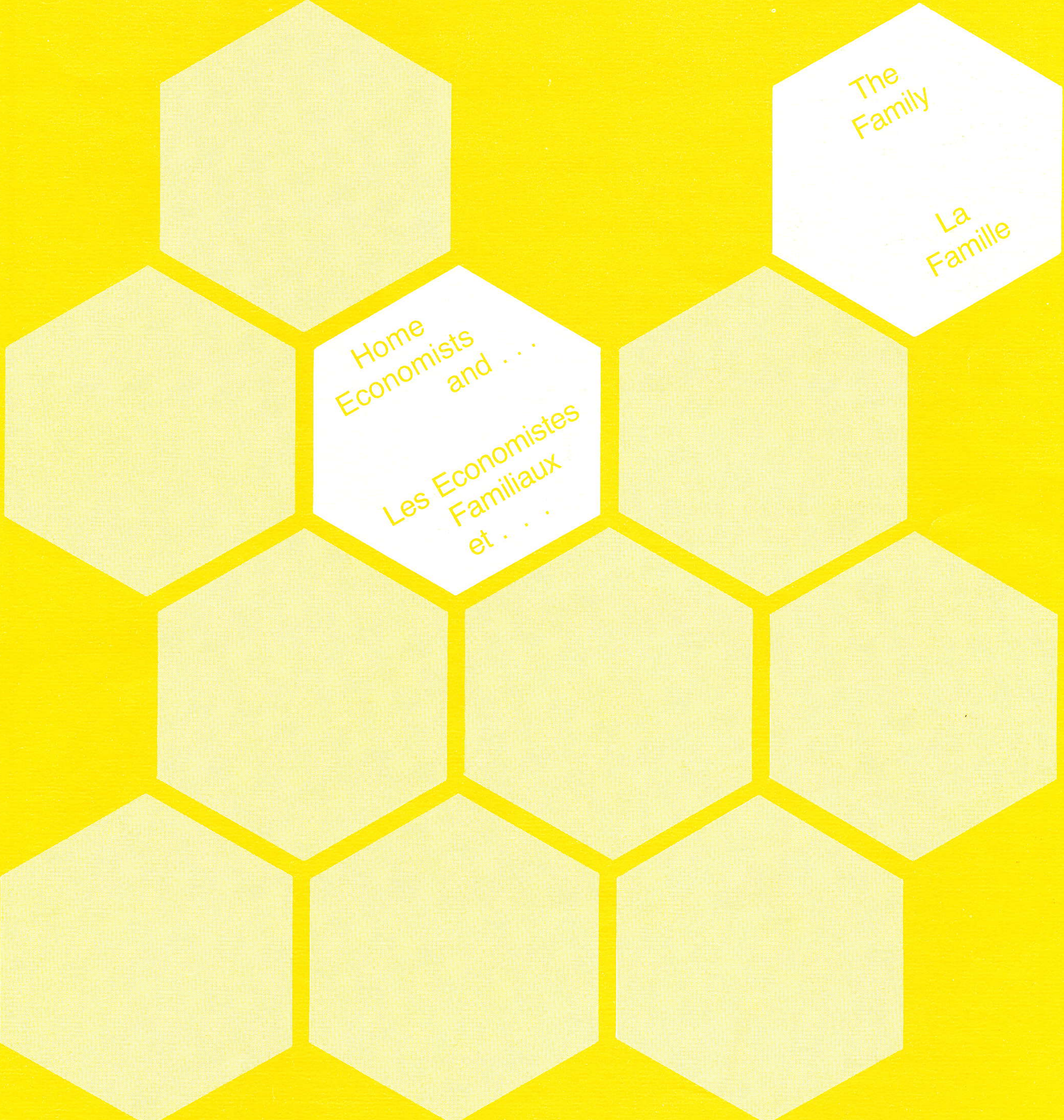

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CHEA Call for Nominations

Honor Award

- The Honor Award shall be awarded from time to time to members of the Canadian Home Economics Association who have made or who are making a distinct contribution to the Association and/or to the profession of home economics.

- The award shall be granted for distinction associated with outstanding effort toward furthering the stated aims and goals of the Association and/or with outstanding accomplishment in any field of home economics, in each case recognizing integrity, scholarship, breadth of knowledge, experience, leadership, and service to the community.

- The candidates shall be those who have had at least 10 years as active members of the Association. There shall be no limitations as to age. The award is intended to be a stimulus to professionally active people.

- Nomination of a candidate shall be made to the Chairman of the Awards Committee by 6 members in good standing, at least one of whom must be a member of the Board of Directors of CHEA. Application forms for documentation of the nominee for this honor are available from the General Secretary of CHEA at the National Office in Ottawa.

- Nominations must be sent to the Chairman of the Awards Committee **before February 28** of the year in which the award is to be considered.

- Knowledge of the nomination must be held strictly in confidence by those making the nomination. Information concerning the nominee is not to be obtained solely from the nominee but from other CHEA members, non-member associates, professional curriculum vitae, etc. Unsuccessful nominations may be redocumented and submitted again in subsequent years.

Honorary Membership

- Honorary membership shall be awarded from time to time to distinguished individuals who have attained eminence through their contributions to the profession of home economics, but who do not qualify as home economists.

- Nomination of a candidate for this honor should be someone who is a member of an allied professional or technical group who has contributed to the furthering of the stated aims of the profession, *or* who by reason of his/her own professional activities has come to be associated with the profession in a manner which has been mutually beneficial and rewarding.

- Nomination of a candidate shall be made to the Chairman of the Awards Committee by any six members in good standing. Application forms for documentation of the nominee for this honor are available from the General Secretary of CHEA at the National Office in Ottawa.

- Nominations must be sent to the Chairman of the Awards Committee **before February 28** of the year in which the award is to be considered.

- One nomination may be selected by the Awards Committee in each year from among the candidates nominated and submitted to the Executive for perusal and to the Board of Directors for final approval. If, in the opinion of the Awards Committee, the work of the candidates nominated does not warrant the award, an award may be omitted in a given year. At no time should there be more than three Honorary Members of the Association.

Nominations are being received *now for 1982. Forms are available from CHEA, Ste. 805, 151 Slater Street, Ottawa, Canada K1P 5H3.*

Communique

from the Executive

Ellen Boyton
Acting Secretary

- Following the presentation of the Professional Development Committee Report, a number of Task Forces have been struck as follow-up action. There will be appointed groups focussing on each of: Rationale for Professional Development, Registration and Licensing, Ethics, Professional Education, and Communication. To encourage wide readership of the report, copies will be sent to all affiliate groups.

- Steps are being taken toward the adoption of the recommendations of the Structures Committee and close involvement will be maintained with affiliate groups as the structure is implemented.

- Membership in CHEA as of September 30 stands at 1700, a 3.2% increase from September 30, 1980. A Provincial Director co-ordinated action will be taken to contact outstanding members and encourage their membership renewal. A year-round membership strategy is being reviewed for approval at the November executive meeting.

- The quarterly financial statement was reviewed. Serious cash flow problems are anticipated in January. A letter will be sent to life members to encourage contributions to CHEA.

- The 1981 Conference Committee were commended for an excellent program, high calibre speakers and overall organization. It is expected that the profits will exceed the $15,000 projected figure.

- A letter will be sent to the Dean of Science, Memorial University in support of their possible addition of a Faculty of Home Economics.

- The Carnation Company has increased their award to $750 from $500. Robin Hood has instituted a $1000 award. ●

Creating a Positive Image
The First Key

Creating a positive professional image is, I believe, *the* major concern of Canadian home economists. How we are perceived by other professionals, by employees, and by the public is a frustration to some (note Jeanne Carter's article in the last issue of the *Journal*) and an embarrassment to others. Why? And what can be done about it?

First let us put the problem into perspective. We are not the only profession with perceived image problems. Ask librarians. I am told they are concerned with being viewed as grey haired bun-adorned ladies demanding silence in libraries. And pharmacists. They are afraid they are pictured as "pill pushers". Social workers have wrestled with image problems for years. They too have engaged in name changing. What was once "charity" was changed to the more positive word "welfare". Now we see the appearance of "social services".

Our problem is somewhat different. It appears that our public does not have much of an idea of *what* we do, *how* we do it, or *why*. This is not too surprising as we are a relatively small profession which has a rather varied set of career frameworks. Perhaps we could use this lack of image to advantage and set out to create our own clear picture of what the *modern* home economist is and does.

We could embark on a plan to individually *inform* our employers, other professionals, and the public about our profession. The biggest mistake we can make is to *ask* - particularly a speaker at a meeting or conference - what his or her impression of home economics is. Such a speaker is thus forced to tell us, and to recall making gobs of white sauce in grade seven. (If pressed, the same speaker would likely tell about the post menopausal librarian.)

We should *never ask* anyone what his or her impression of our profession is, we should *tell* them. We should not stop there. We should describe enthusiastically — even dramatically — what we are and what we do. We should proclaim the significant potential of the up-to-date home economist. Let people know that this potential is so great that Canada can hardly afford to survive without us.

What then, can we say with pride, enthusiasm and confidence about our profession? Involved home economists who are working on their own professional development and updating come up with the best answers — some I have heard are:

> *Home economists are found where families interact with communities, with technology and with business. That's why you'll find us working in education, business, housing, consumer education, and nutrition.*
>
> *Management of life skills is core to the profession.*
>
> *Home Economics has a goal to improve quality of life.*
>
> *Undergrad education - no matter what specialty - includes communication and management skills.*
>
> *We have experience in interdisciplinary and holistic approaches to problem solving. Both are "in" concepts.*
>
> *Many home economists in Canada run their own successful businesses.*
>
> *Areas of specialization are varied making the field quite fascinating.*

These and other statements about home economics are used appropriately when an employer, colleague, or friend expresses interest.

But how does the grass roots home economics professional keep up to date on what her modern colleagues are doing and thinking? How does she answer questions about the field?

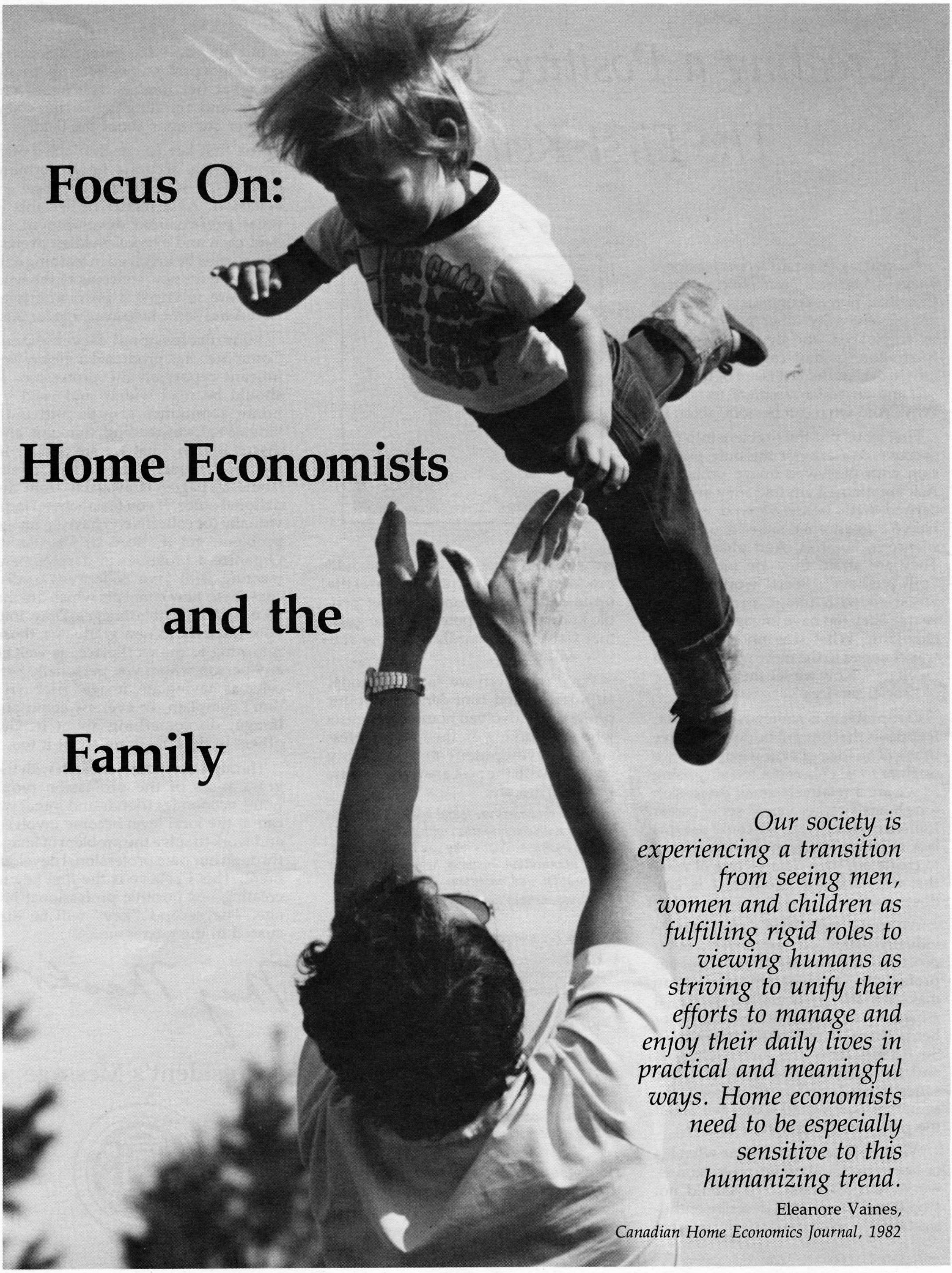
The first key to creating one's own appropriate, accurate image forming concepts, I suggest, is *professional development*. As a matter of fact this is what professional development is. And each and every Canadian professional must be involved in learning and searching for new concepts of the field if we are to create a positive image. CHEA has some help available for this.

Your Professional Development Committee has produced a major, significant report on the profession. It should be read widely and used by home economics groups and individuals to focus reading, thinking, and discussion on what we are and do in the most modern sense. This report (some 60 pages) is available from the national office. If you feel that you individually (or collectively) have an image problem, get it. Read it. Discuss it. Organize a professional development meeting with your colleagues to discuss these new concepts which are the core to strong public images. Draw into your discussions new graduates, those returning to the workplace, as well as any person whom you personally perceive as having an "image" problem - don't complain, or ever *ask* about our image, do something about it. Get others to do something about it too.

Through a committed search with the grass roots of the profession (your home economics friends and mine) we can at the local level become involved and work to solve the problem of image through our own professional development. This I believe is the first key to creating our positive professional image. The second "key" will be discussed in the next issue.

May Maskow

President's Message



Focus On: Home Economists and the Family

Our society is experiencing a transition from seeing men, women and children as fulfilling rigid roles to viewing humans as striving to unify their efforts to manage and enjoy their daily lives in practical and meaningful ways. Home economists need to be especially sensitive to this humanizing trend.

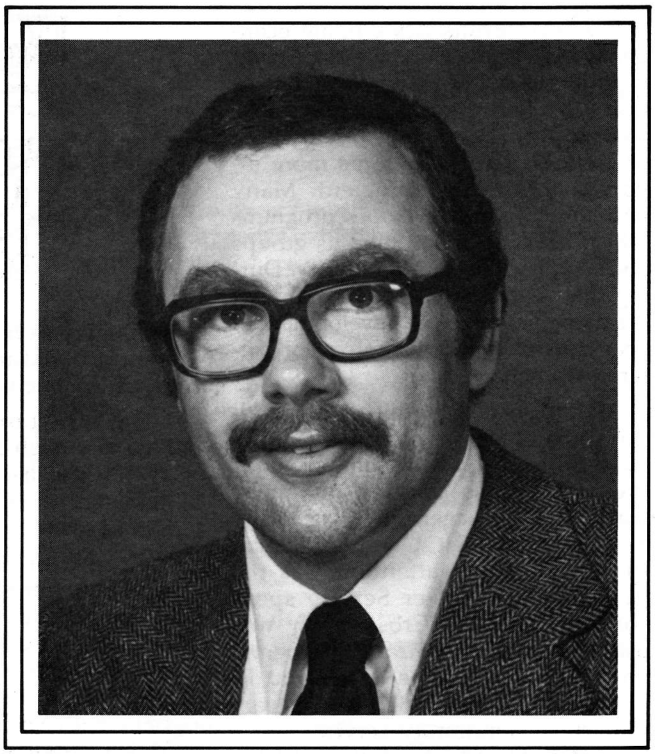
Eleanore Vaines,
Canadian Home Economics Journal, 1982

Photo courtesy of the *Edmonton Journal*

New Roles for the Family

Thomas Abernathy

Guest Editor



Perhaps one of the few things upon which Canadians might agree is that the family is declining in popularity and fading in importance. Newspapers, magazines, and television talk-shows inform us daily that cohabitation has replaced marriage; illegitimacy is the norm; and half of all marriages end in divorce.

It is true that family life in our society is changing. The nature of the change, however, is complex and not easily reduced to a catch phrase such as "breakdown of the family". For example, while it appears as if cohabitation is gaining in acceptance as an alternative to marriage, the proportion of the population that is married has actually increased during this century. In 1911, 51% of all males and 56.7% of all females over the age of 15 were married. In 1976, the most recent year for which statistics are available, the figures were 65% of all males and 64% of all females. Even the significance of the dramatic rise since 1969 in the Canadian divorce rate is difficult to interpret. First, the increased rate of divorce is not itself an accurate index of increased marital instability — since we have no record of how many people in the past either separated, divorced, or remained unhappily together because of the legal difficulties involved in obtaining a divorce. Furthermore, there is the matter of what many people do after they divorce. A sizeable proportion of them remarry. In 1976 there were 54,207 divorces in Canada, which amounts to less than one per 100 married couples; but, during that same year, more than 47,200 previously divorced persons were remarried. In fact, nearly 70% of those between the ages of 35 and 39 who married that year were previous divorcees. This suggests that even many of those who divorce have not given up on marriage but, rather, expect something more from it than their spouse might have been able to provide.

But what conclusions about the family, if any, can we draw from evidence that seems to be so ambiguous? Isn't the family condemned by social forces to become eventually obsolete? I believe that very much the opposite is taking place. Even though some of its traditional functions, in areas such as education and recreation, are being taken over by other institutions the family is assuming another new and more important role. This is to provide the close, accepting, primary relationships that we need for psychological well-being. As our society has changed over the years from a rural to a more urban, mobile and industrial one, people have increasingly fewer opportunities to deal with others who consider and value them as individuals rather than as the means to a goal. As a consequence, many have come to look to the family for those kind of experiences, and some are finding them in new and alternative family forms.

Home economics, as both a profession and as an area of study, always has concerned itself with how material and human resources can be used for the benefit of families. Although it might sometimes seem as if this task does not receive the appreciation it deserves, it is one that integrates our efforts and provides us with the focus we need to carry on successfully in the future. ●

Dr. Abernathy, a specialist in family studies, is Dean of the College of Home Economics, the University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon. He is Research Editor of the *Canadian Home Economics Journal*.

On the Community Front

Ann C. Lowe

New Brunswick Provincial Director

New Brunswick's home economists are very much a part of the community scene. Many have given of their time and expertise during those years they were employed in teaching or business only to become more involved following retirement. Many have initiated and developed programs which have helped numerous groups and members of the community. During this year, many home economists are participating in the development of programs in the new centers for battered women.

After 37 years of teaching Mary Maddox of Saint John retired, however as soon as she did, several organizations including those catering to retired teachers, were eager for her expertise as home economist. One organization that claimed her attention was the Visiting Homemaker Service sponsored by the Red Cross. Mary was asked to coordinate a training program and later she became an instructor. This program developed into a very important community service and is now operated by Manpower and the Red Cross.

In 1961 the School Milk Project began in Saint John sponsored by the Saint John Home Economics Association and the Saint John Gyro Club. This project, organized and managed solely by volunteers, supplied 535 children with milk in Saint John & District schools from November 1980 until April 1981. Mary Maddox and Edna Montyr have been responsible for public relations, while Ruby MacNeill has been involved with distribution. Betty MacRae has been secretary and Addie Ferguson has looked after the finances. The project has evolved into a registered charitable organization. The Saint John Home Economics Association raises approximately $1300 each year as its contribution to the Milk Fund through a Coffee Party in the Spring. Norma Beville has been actively involved ever since it inception.

Ruby MacNeill, former coordinator of home economics for the Saint John School Board has been a board member of the Saint John Volunteer Bureau Inc. Although retired and a great traveller, she has devoted much of her time to volunteer activities such as Meals on Wheels. The Community Meals on Wheels, Saint John Inc. began in 1973 and in 1980, 19,700 meals were served. The orginal organizing committee included Betty MacRae, who was Head of Dietary Services at the West Saint John Hospital and Hazel Dunlop also a retired but active dietitian.

Barbara Lordly who teaches at Simonds High School was recognized by the Canadian Red Cross last year for her lengthy volunteer service to Junior Red Cross at Simonds High School.

Fredericton's Florence Swan, although retired from her university position, is busy working with an Outreach Committee at her church. She has also been involved with the Volunteer Bureau of Fredericton Inc., especially with Meals on Wheels and CHIMO (a crisis line). She helps with visitation and driving of the elderly.

Anne Legassick has also been involved this past year in CHIMO. Volunteers work in shifts answering phones in order to help out in times of crisis.

Terry Smith and Annette Vance on the UNB faculty in Fredericton have developed a course in Family Studies which includes a Family Field Placement. Students in the home economics course, through a planned series of weekly visits with an elderly person develop an understanding of the developmental pattern of that family as well as an appreciation of some of the factors which have influenced their pattern of family development. The visits are arranged through the Red Cross Society Friendly Visiting Program. This course will help "future" home economists appreciate their role as volunteers in their communities.

The 11th edition of New Brunswick Recipes is almost completely sold. This volunteer project has provided scholarships for deserving students in New Brunswick through NBHEA. The NBHEA honored Helen Crocker for giving so freely of her help in the Moncton area by dedicating the final edition to her this past year. Others who have been responsible for distribution include Margaret Hamilton in Fredericton, Marcelle Mersereau in Bathurst and Edna Montyr in Saint John. Margaret McCormack is now chairing a group who will organize and develop the next edition which will be in both languages and in metric.

The concept of "Career Expo" has taken hold in New Brunswick. The aims are to broaden students' awareness of various occupations available to them and to assist students in specific career educational planning. October 1980 was the date of Saint John's Career Expo. The home economics booth, which was one of the most attractive, was set up by home economics teachers, assisted by dietitians and homemakers. Among the committee members were Joyce Mayo, Mary Losier-Roderick, Sally Murphy, Addie Ferguson and Barb Lordly. The focal point of the display was the home economics ring with graduates featured in the center. Information on educational requirements to enter the home economics field, range of careers, working conditions and opportunities for advancement were made available by volunteers who were at the booth during the week long event. The 7,000 students and general public who visited the exhibition were able to obtain nutritious snacks which were provided by home economics classes under the direction of home economics teachers including Janet Nice. It was a two year organizational effort on the part of all Saint John home economists. It was a most successful undertaking and helped promote the profession to the community at large. Frederiction home economists are in the process of developing their Career Expo 81.

There are many other members of CHEA quietly working in all areas of the province of New Brunswick, in church groups, in prisons, with battered women, and in special projects unique to their community that I've not been able to mention. However, all of these individuals are sharing their training and talents with others in their community. ●

Home Economics as a Helping Profession

Eleanore Vaines

Abstract

Home economics as a helping profession is one view of the field. These excerpts from *The Home Economist as a Helping Professional* by Dianne Kieren, Eleanore Vaines and Doris Badir provide information which can assist in a critical examination of home economics. Understanding how home economics has been organized and interpreted over time is an important perspective about which home economists need to be informed. Having different views of home economics may be a healthy kind of diversity for this stage in the field's evolution. Eventually, however, some degree of consensus will be necessary with regards to what home economics believes, studies and does in relation to what home economics was, is, and should be.

Résumé

L'économie familiale en tant que source d'assistance.

L'un des aspects du domaine de l'économie familiale est l'assistance que pourvoit cette profession. Ces extraits de *"L'économie familiale en tant que source d'assistance"* d'après Dianne Kieren, Eleanore Vaines et Doris Badir fournissent des renseignements pouvant être utiles pour un examen critique de l'économie familiale. Une perspective importante dont on doit informer les économistes est de comprendre comment l'économie familiale a été organisée et interprétée au fil des années. C'est certainement une forme de diversité très saine d'avoir, à ce stade de l'évolution dans de domaine, différents points de vue sur l'économie familiale. Cependant, il deviendra nécessaire de procéder à une sorte de consensus en ce qui concerne ce que l'économie familiale croit, étudie et fait par rapport à ce qu'elle a été, est et devrait être.

The title of this article[1] reflects a particular view of home economics and one which is not necessarily shared by all home economists. Therefore, one purpose of presenting home economics as a helping profession is to critically examine this approach. The other purpose is to share information about home economics which can provide a perspective of what the field believes, studies and does. Home economics is a relatively young profession and is in the process of evolving a normative view which will mean a bringing together of what the field was, is and should be. The processes involved with this evolution are stimulating some important discussions. The results include conference proceedings, journal articles and monographs which serve as rich resources from which to gain insights. (For example: Brown & Paolucci, 1974; Horn, 1981; Brown, 1980(a); Brown, 1980(b). It is a time in which home economists need to be informed and thinking about the field to which they have made a commitment.

Looking Back — The Profession in Review

Every profession has a history which documents its growth and development. These roots are the source from which home economics has evolved as a unique field. This historical perspective is essential to understanding the contemporary state of the field.

The *idea* of home economics has been attributed to Socrates who discussed farm and home management and the means whereby such management would be successful (Tate, 1973, p. 3). Frances Bacon, who lived from 1561-1626, also saw value in knowledge for the purpose of helping humans better themselves. He believed that the search for knowledge should cover the most ordinary events such as every day living. At the time he wrote and discussed his ideas they were considered revolutionary.

Although ideas are often associated with certain people or groups, the development of an idea into some form of action is usually the result of many people's concerns. This was true of the home economics *movement*. During the 1800's a number of foresighted, altruistic, educated men and women saw the value of applying knowledge to the problems of daily living. They observed everywhere about them people living in less than optimal conditions, most of which had the potential to be improved and even in some cases eradicated. By the end of the 19th century, Ellen H. Richards

Eleanore Vaines has been a member of the faculty of the School of Home Economics at the University of British Columbia since 1964. She has a BS from the University of Washington; MS from Cornell and a PhD from Michigan State University. Her teaching and research are concerned with professional development and she is presently the chairman of the Canadian Home Economics Association's Professional Development Committee.

---

[1] This article is based on excerpts from a book by Dianne Kieren, Eleanore Vaines, and Doris Badir. *The Home Economist as a Helping Profession.* Edmonton: University of Alberta, 1981 (mimeo).

inspired by Melvil Dewey of Dewey decimal fame, organized the Lake Placid Conferences (1899-1908). While community and university programs had been established before these dates, the conferences are considered of importance because they mark the beginning of the formal organization of the profession. Representatives from educational and community groups from across the United States and Canada as well as Europe, gathered to discuss what the problems of individuals and families were and what strategies might be employed to solve them. At the last Conference, the American Home Economics Association was ratified and in 1909 the Association stated as its purpose:

> The improvement of living conditions in the home, the institutional household and the community . . . and the call for members was to all who are actively interested in home problems ("Announcement", *Journal of Home Economics*, 1909. p. 1).

Then, as now, there was much to do. In 1909 the social context in which home economics was organized is of importance. The 19th century was a complex time in which the impact of the Industrial Revolution was transforming society. Marx, Darwin and Freud were thinking in radically new ways about social concerns. Factories were changing not only the idea of work but who worked. Child labor was of great concern to reformers of the time, for example. Mass production was helping poor people become more affluent in a relative sense, and for the first time there was hope that more people would have access to goods and services beyond anything previously known. Understandably some of these topics were discussed at the Lake Placid Conferences: how to train servants, how to care for slum children, how to provide for the education of children who had to work, and household management. So the climate in which home economics began was dynamic and many forces were changing the lives of individuals and families. It was an opportune time for the development of a profession interested in the daily lives of people and the social environment of the time supported the establishment of the home economics profession.

But among all the things which were happening in the late 19th century two important forces actually made home economics possible. First, the leaders of the field had to envision the problems of the home as being appropriate for study and worthy of using the application of science to solve them. At the same time, society had to be convinced that women had the capabilities of being educated and that education was necessary for the roles they were primarily engaged in: homemaking and childrearing. Without these and the supportive role that various philanthropic organizations played in developing community educational programs for home related problems, the field may not have developed. The time was right — the problems, the resources and the social forces combined to encourage and stimulate the organization of a scientifically and philosophically based profession.

The early leaders of the field were not interested in changing women's roles. In fact, Adelaide Hoodless was frequently quoted as saying that the role of home economics was to help woman better carry out her God given place in life (Stamp, 1977). What she referred to was the role of wife and mother.

Though the intent of the leaders was to educate women for traditional roles, the impact has been far greater. No one can argue that the home economics movement did not serve as a change agent for women's roles. The change occurred in two directions, one intended and one incidental. The intended direction was toward educating women in the public schools and in higher education for their roles in the home. The incidental was in opening the door for women to choose to participate in roles beyond the home.

In summary, the Lake Placid Conferences were held because the time was ripe and the need obvious for the field of home economics to become organized. In addition, there were enough concerned, intelligent and visionary people who came together to share and make home economics happen. To paraphrase a statement by Melvil Dewey at the First Lake Placid Conference.

> There are many benefits to be derived from the cooperation and organization of those engaged in parallel lines of work . . . there is a growing feeling that there is no more important question . . . than home sciences . . . . those who can make the home all it should be will get nearer the foundations of life.
>
> (Lake Placid Proceedings, 1901, p. 4.)

A great deal has happened since the Lake Placid Conferences. Between 1909 and 1980 the field has evolved through wars, depressions, and affluence. Home economics as a result has adapted and changed and from time to time, the profession has critically examined its challenges and contributions. (For example, Committee on Philosophy and Objectives for Home Economics, 1959; Lee & Dressel, 1963; McGrath & Johnson, 1968; Schlater, 1970; Yankelovich, 1974; Lake Placid Conference of 1973, 1975; Brown & Paolucci, 1979; and Brown, 1980 (a and b).) Always the concerns are with what the field and its members believe, study and do in relation to what home economics was, is and should be. The essence of the evolution of the field is to integrate these into a congruent and interrelated whole which can be intellectually and morally justified.

But over time home economics has been organized and interpreted in different ways and these have influenced how home economists perceive themselves as well as their public image. The following is a review of some of these ways and some further events which have shaped home economics.

Concepts of Home Economics in Higher Education

In the early '60s, Jeannette A. Lee and Paul L. Dressel conducted a study of home economics in higher education. In their monograph, *Liberal Education and Home Economics*, they identified some of the critical issues facing the field (Lee & Dressel, 1963, pp. 89-108). One important issue they noted was that there were three different major ways in which home economics in higher education was organized; home economics as a single field; as a collection of specialties; and as a unified field. These three appeared to be independent of one another and those holding one particular view of home economics would organize their courses and programs very differently from those who held another view. In other words, the field of home economics has been influenced to some degree by the ways in which the curriculum in units of home economics in higher education have been organized.

Home economics as a single field. Units of higher education which conceive of home economics as a single field design their curriculum as a series of courses which all students must take. The assumption of this approach is that all home economists need to know the same thing in order to be a qualified practitioner. The graduate is usually being prepared for a traditional home economics role as teacher, extension home economist or dietitian. It is assumed that most students are women and that ultimately they will become full time homemakers. This view of home economics was usually found in units of higher education where a broad general program was offered (Lee & Dressel, 1963, pp.89-91).

Home Economics as a collection of disciplines or specialties. Since Sputnik was launched in 1958, there has been an increasing emphasis on the specialist. In response to this and other pressures such as the knowledge explosion, many home economics units in higher education organized their departments so that an undergraduate student could major or concentrate their studies. Lee and Dressel found that often the collection of specialties offered at a particular institution had minimal relationship to each other. The nutritionist, for example, was so educated that there was little relationship to majors in family or human development in the same administrative unit. The problem Lee and Dressel noted was that carried to extremes, the existence of home economics as a distinct field with a core of integrated ideas was difficult to identify. As a result the common themes which integrate home economics and home economists were not present and left the unit open to fragmentation (Lee & Dressel, 1963, 93-94).

Home Economics as a unified field. Another way home economics was found to be organized was as a unified field (Lee & Dressel, 1963, 91-93). In general this conception was originally operationalized by offering a limited number of undergraduate specialties which would lead to a vocational or professional specialization in home economics. The unifying core which tied the specialties together was seen as the development of beliefs about the profession and the role of the professional and a common core of subject matter which all majors shared. In those units which qualified as having core courses, there were different ways in which these were organized. Such areas as family, human development, family resource management were sometimes defined as the common core subject matter areas. East, on the other hand, views home management as the central subject matter area of the field (East, 1980, 175-194).

The core subjects did differ from institution to institution but the basic structure of the curriculum consisted of general or specialty majors in which a series of courses constituted the core for all majors. In general, those students enrolled in these units perceived themselves as home economists with a common set of beliefs with diverse professional interests.

Since the Lee and Dressel report the three major ways in which home economics is organized in higher education have continued to emerge. Some of these are highly sophisticated and assist the student in their preprofessional education to integrate the field's mission, home economics as an area of study and home economics as a profession. Marshall noted that the "fundamental concept of home economics . . . is the study of the relationships between [humans] and their relationship to the environment [and] is a highly sophisticated conceptualization as well as a rather broad one" (Marshall, 1973, 8). All the ways in which home economics has been organized in higher education since its inception, reflect in some fundamental sense the basic idea of home economics. And, in turn, the ways in which home economics has been organized in higher education have had some influence on the ways in which home economists have perceived themselves as home economists. These will be discussed as follows: Home economics as preparation for homemaking; as technical-vocational training; and as preparation for a professional career.

Home economics as preparation for homemaking. This interpretation is fascinating because this view has deep historical roots. As was noted earlier, some of the early founders of home economics believed that education of women should be for the purposes of fulfilling their role in society as wives and mothers. Some colleges and universities, therefore, interpreted curriculums with regards to women's education as preparing them for their role in society. In the present era some of the questions related to this interpretation are: Is university education an appropriate place for the preparation of homemakers? If so, what kind of curriculum would suit this goal? Is one of the important roles of home economists to prepare people for homemaking roles?

Regardless of the answers to the sample of questions above, is the concern of how to plan any such program to attract both men and women. Our society is experiencing a transition from seeing men, women and children as fulfilling rigid roles to viewing humans as striving to unify their efforts to manage and enjoy their daily lives in practical and meaningful ways. Home economists need to be especially sensitive to this humanizing trend and preparing homemakers in the broad sense for sharing and cooperation so all members of a household can have opportunities to contribute to the well-being of the family group.

Home economics as technical-vocational training. Vocational education has been described as:

> given in schools or classes . . . as part of a program designed to fit individuals for gainful employment as semi-skilled or skilled workers or technicians in recognized occupations . . . the term includes vocational guidance and counselling in connection with the training, instruction related to occupations for which the student is being trained (Baxter, Barber & Thurber; 1975, p. 6).

This interpretation of home economics has often been combined with the home economics as preparation for homemaking. But in general, it has developed as a technically oriented university preparation which facilitates the preparation of individuals for gainful employment. Some people feel that home economics programs with this interpretation do not belong in a university, so to critically examine this interpretation these are some of the questions which can be asked: Is vocational education of home economists consistent with what the field believes, studies and does? How is this interpretation the same or different from other interpretations? Is there a place for vocational preparation of home economists? And if so, where should it be given and what content should be offered? Federal and provincial funding has been available for such programs; should home economics continue to utilize this opportunity?

Home economics as preparation for a profession. There are two approaches to professional training and both approaches may be found among home economics programs in higher education and both are found in home economists' interpretation of their education. The one view sees professional preparation as an in-depth study and understanding of a particular subject matter area. The other view sees professional preparation as concerned not only with subject matter understanding but also as an education for the knowledge and skills required to deliver and/or apply that knowledge and understanding to people and their problems.

In the first instance the overriding concern is competence in the content area. In the second instance the concern is with the social issues and personal relationships which may have to be addressed. While it does not overlook the content area, it sees the processes of problem solving and helping as being important components of professional services (Kieren, Vaines & Badir, 1981, pp. 78-118). In the latter view one would not conceive of a competent courtroom lawyer who had not taken particular pains to perfect his debating skills or a surgeon who had not carefully developed his operating technique. To the home economist with a "human service" interpretation of the profession, the skills, understandings and philosophy of helping are important. While the two views have similarities, they are fundamentally different ways of comprehending the field as preparation for a profession.

Expectations of Home Economists as Practitioners

Just as there have been different ways in which home economics has been organized and interpreted in higher education over time, there also have been changes in the expectations of how home economics should be practiced (Brown, 1980 a). Ruth Hoeflin traced such changes in a unique way in her 1970 volume on *Careers in Home Economics*. At one time the purpose of home economics was to emphasize techniques of "how to do" and the products which resulted (p. 203). This was a period when the home economist provided the correct answers for everything from home canning to toilet training. The implication was that if one did it correctly and followed the recipe the problem was solved.

At a later period the problems faced by families were seen to have economic, social and political origins and emphasis was placed on the understanding of the social sciences for getting at the roots of problems. Solutions were to be found in economic, social or political theory. Concurrently, there was a reliance on the sciences. In other words home economics and home economists sought for their meaning in the traditional disciplines. And as yet another phase, the personal development of the home economist was looked upon as being the most important factor in practicing the profession.

Since *New Directions* (Committee on Philosophy . . 1959), there has been a return to the roots of the field and a re-emphasis on the global concerns of the profession — the concerns for the interrelationships among home, family and community life. There has been a recognition of the interdisciplinary nature of these concerns and an emphasis on interdisciplinary teaching and research. The base is in the traditional disciplines but the interpretation for application to daily living becomes the uniqueness of home economics.

From 1975, the focus has been on the earlier concerns of home economics as a service profession for families. Professional preparation of home economists as the undergraduate level has emphasized "family service" and specialization has tended to be thrust forward more appropriately into graduate training (Hoeflin, p. 203).

This overview of the many perspectives of home economics can be of assistance in understanding better the issues which face the profession as it is today. One issue now and in the future is to refine, add to, and change what the profession and individual home economists believe, study and do, to evolve a consistent and integrated whole. The overall goal is to seek a defintion which has depth, an agreed upon mission, and appropriate means to fulfill it.

Summary

Against a background of the social forces of the past 75 years some of the changes which have taken place in the ways in which educators have viewed home economics have been traced. Home economics emerged out of the conditions of the industrial revolution. Foresighted leaders saw the need to apply scientific principles to the problems of the home. While the intent was to better prepare women for professional roles at home, the impact was far greater and over time home economics has been seen in a number of different perspectives.

Having different views of home economics may be a healthy kind of diversity at this stage in the field's evolution. Eventually, however, some degree of consensus will be necessary with regards to what home economics was, is and should be.

Home economics interpreted as a helping profession and one of the human service fields is a view which emphasizes the need for home economists to integrate what they know with knowledge, attitudes and skills which facilitates the translation of content into responsible and meaningful human services. As all the views of home economics, home economics as a helping profession needs to be critically examined. It is an important process in which every member of the profession needs to be involved. ●

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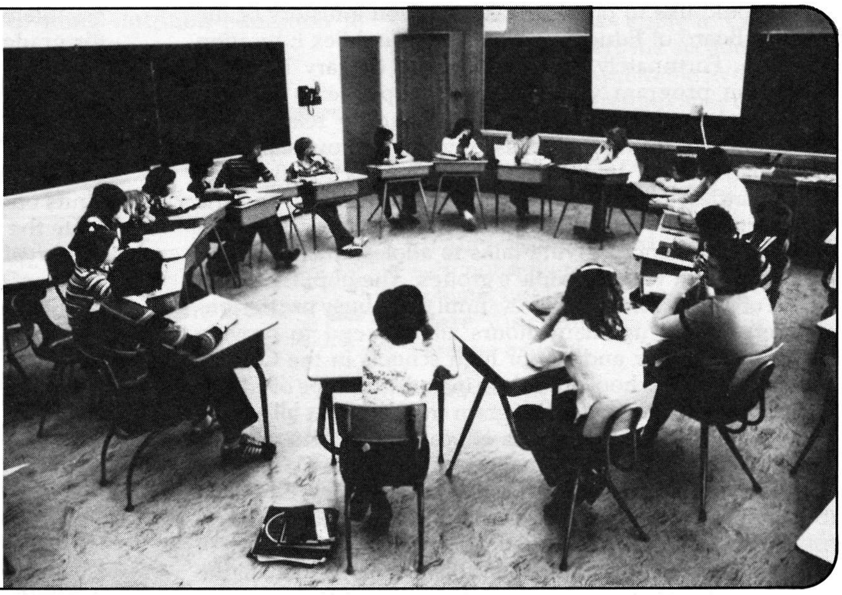
Family Life Education

In the School and In the Community

Barbara MacDougall



Courtesy Media Services, Calgary Board of Education

Before we can have meaningful dialogue about Family Life Education it seems necessary to clarify what we mean by the term. Family Life Education is not a synonym for Sex Education. Family Life Education is not focussed upon dispensing information. Family Life Education does not articulate a particular value position.

> Family Life Education is education to help individuals and families learn what is known about human growth, development and behavior in the family setting through the life cycle. Learning experiences are provided to develop the potentials of individuals in their present and future family roles. The central concept is that of relationships through which personality develops, about which individuals make decisions to which they are committed, and in which they develop self-esteem.
>
> (National Council on Family Relations)

If we insist on a brief definition it would possibly be accurate to say that:

> Family Life Education is education in building meaningful relationships with others.

In order to do this we must start with an examination, understanding, and acceptance of self as a sexual human being.

> Human Sexuality is involved in what we do but it is also what we are. It is an identification, an activity, a drive, a biological and emotional process, an outlook and an expression of self . . . . it is an important factor in every personal relationship in every human endeavor from business to politics.
>
> (The American Medical Association)

Why are we implementing Family Life Education programs in schools today? Former generations of students survived without such courses. One might remember that driver education was not formerly included in school curriculum either, but today, in order to equip students to cope effectively as citizens of the 21st century both relationship skills and driving skills (among other skills) need to be well-developed by today's students. Society is changing rapidly. There is an assumption that today's adolescent is more knowledgeable than previous generations of young people. To quote Erma Bombeck (*The Calgary Herald*, October 6, 1981):

> Hogwash. Thanks to television, we have produced the most confused generation regarding conception and birth who ever lived. Young people don't know what to believe. Eggs don't produce babies, they hatch pantyhose. Women don't carry babies where they're supposed to. They have Jordache pregnancies. Love isn't a reason to have a baby, sagging rates are. And heaven help the women of this generation who have a baby and expect to wear a bikini home from the hospital.

It is interesting to note the development of Family Life Education programs throughout the world. The similarities in the development of these programs is perhaps the most striking feature.

One interesting similarity seems to be the identification of a particular *societal need* and an attempt to meet some aspect of the need through the development of a particular educational, community-based program. Too often the societal need is narrowly focussed and identifies goals such as 1) reducing the number of abortions and 2) reducing the number of teen-age pregnancies.

An assumption is made that by providing information about contraception or the dangers of STD (sexually transmitted diseases) that these goals can be achieved. Unfortunately we have ample evidence that information alone does not change behavior. It is well publicized that the major killers in today's society, heart disease and cancer, are primarily the result of self indulgent behaviors such as overeating and substance abuse (including alcohol and cigarettes.)

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I would like to briefly share with you a history of the Calgary Board of Education Family Life and Sex Education program. Fortunately the seeds of the Calgary Board of Education program were sown in response to need of adolescent students to discuss male/female relationship issues and not primarily focussed on the narrow objectives previously stated. In the early '60s the Doctors Bob and Bruce Hatfield (busy internal medicine specialists) and the Reverend Bob Wallace (then minister at Parkdale United Church) commenced giving talks to adolescents attending United Church young people's groups. The popularity and length of the presentations grew until these busy professionals were giving up many hours all weekend to provide seminars in junior and senior high schools in the Calgary aea. They urged school officials to include this type of education in the regular school program in order that all young people could benefit from this educational experience. An extensive report by the Elementary Curriculum Committee (C.B.E.) entitled *Study of Family Life and Sex Education* (September 1968) and second report *The Feasibility of Establishing, at the Junior High School Level, a Course or Courses in Family Life and Sex Education* (September 1969) endorsed the concept of a program in Family Life and Sex Education which is "broad and comprehensive, ultimately encompassing all age groups from the kindergarten child to young adults and parents".

During the first week of July 1976, an intensive teacher inservice was held at the University of Calgary. The resource person conducting the inservice was Dr. Margaret Arcus, Family Studies, University of British Columbia. The participants were Calgary Board of Education teachers. Up to this point (July, 1976) programs conducted in schools were of the seminar-type, primarily in junior high schools, usually 8 - 10 hours duration and conducted by resource persons from community agencies.

At the conclusion of this Family Life Education inservice there was widespread agreement that if Family Life Education programs were to be of substance and endure over time, the classroom teacher must be involved and that the organization and implementation of the program would be a teacher responsibility.

During the 1977/78 school year, a junior high school Family Life and Sex Education program was piloted in five Calgary junior high schools. The program was then evaluated extensively by students, parents, teachers and administrators through the Program Evaluation Department of Calgary Board of Education. The outcome was support from all four groups for such a program.

Junior high school teachers commenced development of a scope and sequence in the fall of 1978, and a curriculum development project was funded for the 1979 school year. The Board has continued to fund this project. To date curriculum units for junior high students have been written. They are: Climate Building, Self Concept, Human Sexuality, Sex Role Stereotyping, The Family, Interpersonal Relationships, Social Issues.

The first four units each six to seven hours have been printed and inserviced with teachers. Our last four days of inservice (one unit/day) was held August 25-28, 1981 to enable teachers to commence teaching their programs this fall. Curriculum units can be obtained only by attending inservice.

Elementary Curriculum is currently being developed for grades four through six. The *Climate Building — Communications* unit and the *Human Sexuality Unit* have been written and printed and inservice will be commenced in October-November, 1981 with over 100 teachers who will be piloting this new program which replaces a unit entitled Maturation. Currently the *Self Concept Unit* is being written. Units on the *Family* and *Interpersonal Relationships* will complete the upper elementary program as lessons on *Sex Role Stereotyping* and *Social Issues* relating to the developmental stages of these students have been incorporated into existing lessons.

What role does the home economics teacher play in our Family Life and Sex Education programs? At the junior high school level we believe that Family Life Education must have a name and time table assignment of its own if it is to be included in the program of studies. Approximately one quarter of the teachers at our junior high inservices are home economics teachers and one member of our junior high curriculum writing team is a home economics teacher. If a teacher is willing to develop strong skills in interpersonal relationships and small group leadership and if that teacher is comfortable about his/her own sexuality and willing to teach in the area of human sexuality in a co-educational classroom, that teacher, with adequate inservicing will likely enjoy teaching Family Life Education. Not all teachers feel comfortable in a classroom where process is as important as content, and thus it would seem unreasonble to expect all home economics teachers to feel comfortable teaching Family Life Education.

We feel the Calgary Board of Education program is still in its infancy, although 70 elementary schools and 28 junior high schools have reported their intention to offer Family Life programs during the 1981/82 school year. The programs at the high school level are extremely varied and would require another article to outline the range of offerings.

In conclusion, it was interesting to learn at the National Council on Family Relations Annual Meeting held recently in Milwaukee, Wisconsin that family life and sex education programs have been offered in Indiana high schools for the last 30 years and that the public schools in Chicago have been offering programs since 1965. One important factor in continuing successful programs is maintaining contact with parents. We believe that parent meetings prior to commencing school programs is essential and that when this is done, family life and sex education programs can be truly classified as being a program to support families.

Parents have expressed positive support for the Family Life and Sex Education program. The following are comments put into a question box at a recent parent meeting: "I found it helpful to be reminded of how life appears from a teen's point of view — as a parent dealing with teens day to day, it seems easy to lose perspective sometimes. I would like to express how pleased I am to see these concepts and sharing among students and teachers so openly and bringing the family into being part of it as well. Your concern and sharing with teenagers will help them to find themselves and feel comfortable about a teen-ager-adult relationship."

Seeing students become more confident, more socially aware and effective, and more sensitive to their own needs and to the needs of others, is the reward for the teacher involved in Family Life and Sex Education. ●

Stress and the Two-Paycheck Family: Implications for Home Economists

Charles Hennon and Marce Verzaro-Lawrence

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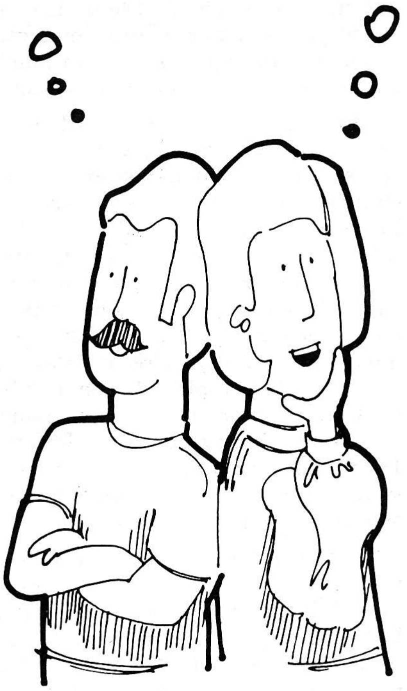
37
ACREAGE FOR SALE
APPLY WITHIN
CLASSIFIED ADS
JOBS
JOBS
JOBS
HELP WANTED APPLY
EMPLOYMENT

Résumé

La décision concernant l'emploi de la mère hors du foyer risque d'affecter tous les membres de la famille. Les économistes familiaux peuvent aider les familles à utiliser des stratégies rationnelles dans la prise de décisions par l'examen de la décision de prendre un emploi dans les rapports de celle-ci avec les effets globaux des récompenses économiques qui en dérivent, avec la répartition de l'autorité au sein de la famille et avec l'attachement de la mère à son travail. Les implications concernant la distribution des tâches ménagères, l'harmonie des rapports conjugaux et l'éducation des enfants devraient également être discutées. Les stratégies pouvant être utilisées par les économistes familiaux dans différentes situations sont l'objet d'une analyse.

Abstract

The decision about the extent to which a wife will be employed outside the home may be stressful for all family members. Home economists can help families utilize rational decision-making strategies by examining the employment decision as it relates to the net effects of the accruing economic rewards, to the distribution of power within the family and to the work attachment of the mother. Implications for household division of labor, marriage satisfaction and childrearing will be discussed. Strategies which can be utilized by home economists in varied settings are explored.



Family decision-making does not always occur in a rational manner. For example, the decision about the extent to which a wife and mother will be employed outside the home may involve both rational and emotional components. The transaction includes not only the decision-making process itself but the ramifications that follow, which can affect household division of labor, marriage satisfaction, and childrearing. Stress can occur in any or all of these areas.

Home economists can help families to manage such stress. Whether employed by school systems, extension services or businesses, we can provide information about those factors which should be considered in making the employment decisions. We can help potential and actual family members to clarify their values, and we can suggest viable stress management strategies. These tasks can be accomplished in the classroom, in informal educational settings, through the mass media and by individual counselling. However, we must start by reviewing our current knowledge about the phases surrounding the employment decision, and drawing implications from this information. The purpose of this article is to provide home economists with a starting point for this initial task.

The Employment Decision

The decision that a wife and mother should enter, re-enter or remain in the labor force may be influenced by many factors. While economic need remains the most prominent influence, previous employment, number of children

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Sketch courtesy of Alberta Agriculture.

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and the perception of mothering as a full-time occupation contribute to the decision. Further, the wife's educational level appears to be correlated with the work decision in ways which vary by social class: women in lower social classes are more apt to work if their educational level is low, whereas the reverse obtains for women in higher social classes (Gordon & Kammeyer, 1980).

There are three important factors which need to be scrutinized by family members as the employment decision is evaluated. While many women are employed solely because of economic benefit, it is important that all family members examine the **net effects of the economic rewards** accruing from the wife's employment. Recent research (Feber & Birnbaum, 1980) has indicated that the homemaker option may be less desirable for the family that wishes to maximize the wife's long-term economic contribution to the family. Although the housework of the woman who spends some years as a full-time homemaker is of greater value than that of the woman who never leaves the labor market, the differences do not appear to compensate for earnings lost. Further, the peak of a woman's value as a homemaker is reached between the ages of 25 to 34, depending on level of education and number and timing of children. Her value declines sharply thereafter. To the degree that her and her family's self-esteem are influenced by her economic contribution, she will need to consider the timing of her entrance into the employment arena.

In counselling situations, home economists can help families estimate the total lifetime contribution of the wife's employment status. The economic value of homemaking can be partially predicted by determining the costs of having others perform the housework and child care tasks, as well as the cost for taxes, commuting and clothing. Worksheets which rationally lead families through this process are one way to assist families. Having made such a determination, families can then be assisted to compare such information against other important variables, such as wife's desire to be a fulltime mother and homemaker or her desire to begin, re-establish or continue a career.

A second factor to be considered by families is the effect that a wife's working will have on the **distribution of power** within the family, particularly as it affects decision-making. While husbands and wives may be joined together in a dependency relationship, they may receive different rewards. Although decisions reached affect every family member, the effects vary. How these decisions are reached is determined, in part, by differential power held by the individuals. In turn, the degree of power is related to differential resources of family members. These resources can include both material and non-material assets which one family member can make available to help another member achieve goals and satisfy needs. Examples include education, income, homemaking ability, attractiveness, and the type of social atmosphere created about the home. It has been argued that the most important rewards are those that have dollar (market) value to those outside the marriage (Heer, 1963). Consequently, homemaker and child care services, although essential to family members, may have low market value.

Although it has been hypothesized that wives who are employed gain increased power in decision-making, studies indicate that this depends on the areas of decision-making studied (Middleton & Putney, 1960; Quarm, 1977). None of the research has measured the wife's power before employment. As a result, there is no clear evidence that in households in which the wife becomes employed, she also begins taking more of a part in family decision-making (Moore & Hofferth, 1979). For example, it may be that wives who are more dominant in decision-making also tend to be employed.

If employment does lead to greater resources, and thus greater power, how will this affect decision-making? Will changing the *rules* and process for decision-making be stressful for couples? Home economists can help family members to assess their decision-making processes and to predict if power struggles might occur. Role-playing situations could be developed as a counselling aid. Such supportive services may become even more important for families who have already made the employment decision and who are experiencing shifts in their relationship.

An important third factor is *work attachment of the mother*, which is her commitment to and desire for full-time, meaningful employment. As described by Masnick and Bane (1980), the traditional employment pattern of women has been that of part-time, part-year or intermittent jobs. Consequently, working women have contributed only about a quarter of family income. However, these authors predict that more women may now work full-time for longer periods of time. Not only will their contributions to family income be raised, but their desire to invest time and emotional energy in career development will increase. The increase in women's contribution to family income will have implications for the distribution for power discussed above. Beyond that, the reallocation of time and energy will affect family members' roles and responsibilities.

Home economists can help family members to examine the wife's work attachment. Does she desire to establish or continue her career? Will this require overtime work, extra training and education, or out-of-town trips? If so, do other family members understand and accept responsibility for the changes in family routine which may occur? An area most affected by the degree of the wife's work attachment is the household division of labor.

Household Division of Labor

It appears that when the decision is made for wives to work, women may now have the responsibility of two jobs, that of employee and that of homemaker (Ferber & Birnbaum, 1980). While some husbands may increase the amount of household tasks they perform, the proportion of men who do this remains small (Walker, 1973; Robinson, 1977). One study found that the husband's share of the total workload declines with his wife's employment, along with the presence of a child under age ten (Meissner, Humphries, Meis, & Schen 1975). Thus a wife who expects that her husband automatically will increase his household contribution as she works may experience stress when this does not happen. Similarly, a husband who expects that homemaking tasks will be accomplished as smoothly as they were prior to the wife's employment also may become stressed when new routines need to be developed.

A rational investigation of how two-paycheck families manage household division reveals that estimates for time spent in weekly housework varies from 40 to 70 hours (Moore & Hofferth, 1979). Employed women reduced their housework hours by about one-half, to approximately 26 hours per week

(Meissner, et al., 1975). Full-time employed wives make up most housework on weekends, cutting down on their leisure or discretionary time. These women report having only 29 hours of discretionary time per week, compared with about 42 hours for husbands and about 39 hours for full-time homemakers with children (Ferber & Birnbaum, 1980). While little research exists on the distribution of time for part-time employed wives, it is possible that the smaller amount of time spent out of the home may lead both her and her husband to believe she should continue to carry a large share of both homemaking and child care (Moore & Hofferth, 1979).

Home economists can help families assess the various housework options available both before and after the wife is employed. These options include: 1) to work out a new division of labor among all or some household members; 2) to rely on the paid and voluntary contributions of outsiders, such as friends, relatives, neighbors or cleaning professionals; 3) to make the wife a more efficient performer of household tasks; 4) to reduce the number of hours the wife and/or husband spend in employment; and 5) any combination of these. A time-study procedure can be employed to determine how much time has to be spent in each household task during specific points of the week. These demands can be matched with the skills of household members or outsiders, and with the values and role perceptions of individual family members. The home economist can become the negotiator, as the trade-offs and consequences emerging from each option are explored.

Marriage Satisfaction

Marriage satisfaction is perhaps the most important component of life satisfaction for married people (Glenn, 1975). Therefore, any experience which interferes with marriage satisfaction may produce stress. The evidence is mixed concerning the effect of employment outside the home on the satisfaction of wives with their marriages (Moore & Hofferth, 1975). Many factors appear to affect satisfaction. For example, the wife's level of education is important. Highly educated employed women appear to be more satisfied with their marriages than are highly educated homemakers (Burke & Weir, 1976), while less educated homemakers are more satisfied than less educated employed wives (Feld, 1963).

Further, women who work part-time (Ferree, 1976) or out of choice rather than because of economic necessity (Orden & Bradburn, 1969), women who no longer have preschool age children (Moore & Hofferth, 1979), and women whose husbands are favorable about the wife's employment (Granopulus & Mitchell, 1957) are more satisfied with their marriages than are homemakers. The job realities are different for an educated, middle class woman with interesting part-time work being pursued by choice, as compared to the working class woman who is employed out of necessity full time at a boring job. Even if her husband does not help with housework, the middle class woman may have more time and resources to expend on herself, family and home. However, any employed women may experience work overload, particularly when husbands do not assist with housework. Conversely, even women with less interesting and challenging jobs say that their work gives them a sense of competence, social connectedness, and self-determination (Ferree, 1976), which may in turn enhance the marital relationship.

It is clear that the effects of employment on women's satisfaction with marriage is dependent upon a complex set of factors. Those factors include the type of work, reason for employment, full- or part-time status, and degree of support received from significant others. The marriage satisfaction of husbands with employed wives is also complex. When wives work by choice, husbands report greater marital satisfaction and lower tension than do husbands of homemakers (Orden & Bradburn, 1969). However, some husbands who do not readily accept their wives' working have trouble accepting nontraditional roles, and thus experience stress (Ferree, 1976). One explanation is that women who gain employment are expanding into a higher status role than that of homemaker, while the husband, if he assumes homemaker responsibilities, is taking on a lower status role (Burke & Weir, 1976). This change may be stressful because of the husband's lack of competence in his new role, combined with the lowered self-esteem he experiences. Further, his wife may no longer have the time to provide the level of physical and emotional comfort that he previously enjoyed.

Marriage Satisfaction and Stress

The overall balance between marriage satisfaction and stress for both husbands and wives is the result of many factors. Advantages of a working wife could include: a higher family income, a higher standard and quality of life, more flexibility in the husband's job or career path (e.g., not having to work overtime, chance to change to a new, perhaps financially risky, career) and less burden on the husband for complete financial responsibility for the family. These advantages could reduce stress for both husband and wife.

However, economic support of the family is still regarded as a primary responsibility of the husband's role. If the wife is employed, this may be perceived by the husband, his friends, relatives and his wife as a sign of inadequacy. If he fails to take on what his wife perceives to be a "fair share" of the housework, she could feel stress due to overload and perhaps resentment. Both of these factors may lead to lowered marriage satisfaction, perhaps even divorce. Although there is evidence of conflict (Nye & Hoffman, 1974), there is no clear-cut evidence that employment of wives leads to increased marital instability (Moore & Hofferth, 1979). It does appear that couples in which the wife earns the highest proportion of the household income (Moore & Waite, 1977) and in which the husband has a relatively low or unstable income (Sawhill, Peabody, Jones, & Caldwell 1975) run an increased risk of divorce.

Family members should be aware that the impact of the wife's employment on marriage satisfaction of both partners can be both positive and negative. For example, an employed woman has an alternate source of support and thus may become independent of her husband. If the marriage is, or becomes, unsatisfactory, then she may well decide to separate. On the other hand, the joint income allows for a higher standard of living and perhaps a richer quality of life, which improve the stability of the marriage. Home economists can help families examine the relationship between changing marriage satisfaction and the wife's employment by using marriage enrichment programs and workshops on communication skills. We also can serve as referral sources for individualized counselling services provided by social service personnel and pastoral counsellors. Adolescents in 4-H clubs and family living classes can be introduced to young married couples who have confronted the challenges that a working family faces while readjusting marital satisfaction.

Child Care

A component of homemaking which may be particularly stressful is childrearing, which may have been primarily the responsibility of the mother prior to her employment. With both full- and part-time maternal employment, parents may need help from non-family members to share child care tasks. When sharing childrearing, parents may be concerned about the effects on the child of both the mother's working and the child's participation in non-home experiences (Verzaro-Lawrence, 1980).

In the past, parents have used a variety of child care options relying on the spouse, relatives and neighbors to baby-sit in home-like settings (Rhodes & Moore, 1976). However, preference patterns may be changing. More families may be seeking child care from centre-based, formal caregiving programs (Verzaro-Lawrence, 1980). In these cases, selecting a day care program of high quality could become another stressor. Parents may not know how to find these centres and how to assess the various components of a child care program. Also, daily relationships with caregivers may lead to stress. Powell (1979), for example, found that parents and caregivers may disagree about the importance of sharing what parents consider private and personal family business.

Underlying the shared childrearing relationship are role differences between parents and caregivers. As described by Katz (1980), parents and caregivers differ in the intensity of feelings toward the child, the types of functions peformed, spontaneity of adult-child interactions, and the amount of responsibility for the child. Parents consider their child as a special and unique individual, while caregivers must consider the child within the context of the entire group of children. Further, while these adults are sharing in the child's socialization, caregivers may be the first *public* and impartial judges of the parents' childrearing skills (Lightfoot, 1978). Unsure of how to share responsibilities with caregivers and anxious about caregivers' judgments, parents may feel stressed about the entire shared childrearing situation.

Home economists can play a crucial role in helping parents to handle the stresses of the shared childrearing. Information can be shared about the effects on children of both mother's working and of the child's participating in child care. This material could be packaged in short, question-and-answer brochures which are placed in supermarkets, child care centers and day care licensing offices. Television panel discussion, composed of a working mother and father and an early childhood educator, could be presented on a local station. We can make available recently developed observational instruments which were designed to help parents assess the quality of child care situations (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1980; Bradbard & Endsley, 1978; Lake, 1980). While discussing these devices with parents, home economists can help parents clarify their own priorities for child care. Is there an upper limit for the weekly fee? Are pre-academic experiences desirable or undesirable? Is a location near home or work a necessity? Is an emphasis on social interactions with other children a paramount parental goal? By clarifying their own priorities prior to visiting child care programs, parents may be in a stronger position to evaluate these programs in terms of family needs, hence relieving some parental stress.

Further Directions

It is clear that the adults in a two-paycheck family will experience stress as they adjust to the changes imposed by the wife's entering the labor force. Also, it is clear that the stress cannot be eliminated entirely. But with our commitment to strengthening family functioning, home economists have a responsibility to assist spouses as they identify the stressors and develop effective stress management decisions. ●

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Management: Crucial Subject Matter for Home Economists in the '80s

Kathryn Rettig and Glenda Everett

This article will focus on the following present and future needs related to the role of home economists in working with individuals and families: 1) the need to include more resource management-family economics content in teaching, research and service activities; 2) the need to give family resource management greater prominence in home economics offerings at secondary and university levels; and 3) the need for family resource management educators to place greater emphasis on the *macro* perspective of resources which involves assisting individuals to understand the impact of family decisions upon the global ecosystem as well as to understand the adaptations required as a result of natural resource scarcity.

To accomplish our purposes, we wish to discuss the problem of resource scarcity, present possible options available to societies regarding resource use, discuss the costs and benefits of two of these options from the family perspective and emphasize the role of family resource management educators (in past, present and future context) in contributing to quality of life of families and the greater society.

Abstract

Management as a subject in home economics can provide individuals and families with valuable problem-solving skills in this age of natural resource scarcity and rapid change. Management specialists need to incorporate a macro perspective where the importance of the man-environment interface is recognized. The impact of family decisions on the ecosystem is discussed by contrasting the scenarios of: (1) doing more with more (working wife); and (2) doing more with less (conservation ethic). Human survival will depend upon decisions that benefit the family as well as the larger society. Quality of life and quality of environment are interdependent.

Résumé

La Direction: Question Cruciale Pour
Les Economistes Des Années 80

La direction, traitée comme sujet dans le domaine de l'économie familiale, peut apporter une aide considérable aux individus et aux familles dans la résolution de leurs problèmes, en ces temps de rarification des ressources naturelles et de changement rapide. Les spécialistes de la direction doivent incorporer une macro-perspective là où ils reconnaissent l'importance de la confrontation homme-environnement. L'impact des décisions de la famille sur le système économique est discuté ici à la lumière de ces deux scénarios opposés: (1) en faire plus avec plus (femme qui travaille); (2) en faire plus avec moins (éthique conservatrice). La survivance humaine dépendra des décisions qui bénéficieront autant à la famille qu'à la société au sens large. La qualité de la vie et la qualité de l'environnement sont inter-dépendantes.

The Problem of Resource Scarcity

The present lifestyles of few North Americans reflect the urgent need to face problems of global resource scarcity, allocation, and distribution inequities. Purcell (1981) refers to North Americans as the "trashiest people in the world" in discussing our energy-intensive lifestyles and comments that no society can afford to continue consuming natural resources or discarding wastes at present rates without creating shortages or damaging the ecosystem which sustains us.

Resource scarcity affects our lives directly by causing rising prices. The dwindling supplies of fossil fuels in the past decade have not been accompanied by comparable decreases in demand. Industrialized countries have been accustomed to a lifestyle of ever-increasing consumption such that individuals find it difficult to comprehend or adapt to the concept of frugality. As a consequence, energy-dependent economies have steadily pushed up the prices of consumer goods, but because incomes have not kept pace with the rising prices, purchasing power has declined.

The ideology of this mass consumption society includes an implicit value system: 1) valuing things and property over people; 2) valuing quantity (more) over quality (better); 3) valuing competition over cooperation; and 4) valuing specialization over wholeness (Kincaid, 1979, p. 109). People in our society have been bombarded with this ideology from every side since birth. At a societal level the mass consumption ideology includes three closely linked beliefs: 1) economic growth is an essential and unquestioned good; 2) ever-increasing consumption is a right, a privilege and even a duty; and 3) affluence exists only when society both produces and consumes at an ever-increasing rate.

Although it is widely recognized that consumption and affluence do not guarantee personal happiness and also create larger problems at the societal level, the actual movement to behavioral actions of conservation has been minimal. Eventually the scarcity of non-renewable resources will force humans to adapt. Will we be able to consciously direct the change so that it occurs with gradual and tolerable speed? Or will we continue to deny the problem and be forced to act in crisis at the last minute when fewer alternatives are available? It is evident that if we are to assist families in shifting from a high consumption to a conservation ethic, it will require an educational effort of monumental proportions.

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The problems which require attention in our families and the larger society are interdependent and not easy ones to solve. We can expect our clients and students will face issues such as use of food-producing land, food allocation, water quality and availability, energy allocation and depletion, environmental quality, mental health and population policies. There are many dilemmas which confront us:

- There is a need to reduce consumption of non-renewable resources, but that would increase unemployment and eventually threaten family economic and social well-being.
- Inflation should be reduced, but under our present system would cause unemployment. Families would have to save more and consume less. This would be difficult in a society which places high value on comfort and instant gratification.
- There is a need for global cooperation of peoples, however, that requires trust and present vested interests produce suspicion and conflict.
- Industry is feeling the need to use resources more efficiently to increase productivity. This can be done by automation, but at a significant reduction in numbers of jobs which are often performed by women. (Kincaid, 1979, p. 110)

For every solution there is a corresponding cost. How do we prepare people to make choices that can benefit the family as well as society? How do we prepare people to adapt to these changes? What decision rules of distributive justice do we use in allocating scarce global resources?

Societal Options for Use of Resources

Several kinds of adjustments are possible for societies. Kimon Valaskakis (1981) has described the alternatives in five scenarios:*

- The efficiency scenario. *Doing more with less* requires that waste be reduced with minimal change in values. Inefficient consumption habits are eliminated by pooling resources, exchanging services, using "free" community resources and bargain hunting. Recycling, household production, repair and reuse are basic to this ideology.
- The high stable state scenario. *Doing the same with less* requires that demand be frozen at the present level. Artificial needs that already prevail in society persist, but the creation of additional artificial wants is curtailed by banning advertising or by introducing counter advertising.
- The "Buddhist" society scenario. *Doing less with less* means demand is reduced by efficiency of resource use and by changing values. Groups engaged in voluntary simplistic living shun the materialist values of industrialized societies.
- The status quo scenario. *Doing more with more* means ignoring the need to make changes in consumption. A second-income earner may be added or a second job acquired so that the growing number of artificial wants can be satisifed. This ideology proliferated in the '60s and has developed into doing *the same with the same* in the '80s.
- The squander society scenario. *Doing less with more* is where the consumer reigns supreme and demand increases. Waste and pollution increase as the production of more *throw-away* consumer goods rises to create more demand and jobs.

All five techniques for adaptation to resource scarcity have enjoyed some degree of acceptance in past decades.

Family Adaptations to Resource Scarcity

For reasons of simplicity, two lifestyles will be discussed in greater detail in order to present contrasting views of adaptation to global changes. Families have made these adaptations in lifestyles based on inherent value systems. But how beneficial have these decisions been in enhancing societal welfare? We can see by the cost-benefit analysis of each scenario that all decisions create problems as well as eliminate some. Complex problems do not have simple solutions.

The decision to work outside the home for pay has been one means of coping with the inflationary economy resulting from resource scarcity. The family adaptation of adding a second-income earner represents the *more with more* scenario of resource use. Other families have adapted by acquiring a conservation ethic which represents the doing *more with less* scenario.

Doing More with More: Working Wives

Women in the '70s returned to work in increasing numbers to reduce economic pressures of families as well as to meet needs of the self. It was a decision intended to improve personal and family well-being, but it also has provided benefits to society and extracted personal and societal costs.

Economic benefits. Working for pay has provided women with social security and other retirement benefits, disability insurance, and a work history with job recommendations which are insurances in the event of loss of spouse due to death or divorce.

Social-psychological benefits. Working women have stated that their work gives them feelings of personal growth, competence and self-esteem as well as belonging.

Societal benefits. The investment in human capital made by these working women benefits families and society. Children of working mothers have opportunities to become more self-reliant and often perform better in school (Lloyd & Niemi, 1979; p. 121).

Economic costs. The additional costs of child care, prepared foods or eating out, taxes, wardrobe and transportation costs can quickly deplete the monetary value of the second-income for the family.

Social-psychological costs. Working wives find that work and family are in chronic competition for the finite resources of time, energy and commitment. They are constantly balancing the choices of more or less, now or later, how and when and for whom. There are few societal support systems for working women such as day care facilities. Research has indicated that women are doing the majority of work at home as well as doing full-time market work.

Societal costs. The benefits of human resource development may be counterbalanced by the careless use of other resources. In the process of enhancing her own welfare and that of her family, the working wife has unconsciously made a significant contribution to perpetuating the resource scarcity problem that sent her to work in the first place. Prepared food, fast-food restaurants with their *throw-away* paraphernalia and the second car require large quantities of fossil fuel to produce and use.

We should not imply, however, that working women are the cause of a high-waste society and the *more with more* scenario of resource use. The problem is far more complex and pervasive throughout society. The high consumption society is perpetuated by designers, engineers and manufacturers who encourage our planned obsolescent lifestyles, not to mention the whole cultural value system of industrial societies which has implicitly indicated that variety and newness are better than older and recycled and instant gratification is deserved.

Doing More With Less: The Conservation Ethic

Some families have made adjustments to the rise in prices of goods by increased efficiency of resource use in a lifestyle that places emphasis on household production of goods and services to produce real income as opposed to market work for money income to purchase goods and services. The adaption requires resource substitution of time, human energy and skills for money in order to maintain the family's standard and level of liv-

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See Valaskakis, K. The conserver society: A blueprint for optimum resource management? *The Canadian Home Economics Journal,* Summer, 1981, 150-153.

ing. *Doing more with less* requires that waste be reduced with minimal value change. Families choosing this type of adaptation may also be exchanging services, using community resources, bargain hunting and recycling. The lifestyle involves changing the means through which value priorities are accomplished by using a labor-intensive rather than an energy-intensive emphasis.

Economic benefits. Household production activities contribute to the real income of the family by substituting labor-intensive activities for the costly convenience of market goods. This results in extending family income. The contribution of home-produced goods and services *may* make equal or surpass the economic value of the alternative of having a second-income earner if the costs of the second income are realistically calculated.

Socio-psychological benefits. Acquisition of skills during household production activities contributes to feelings of self-esteem and self-reliance which are both associated with feelings of satisfaction. Shared work activities in the family also provide an integrative and educational function and contribute to family identity and solidarity.

Societal benefits. Family members acquire skills and values at home that may better prepare them for paid employment in the labor market, and that may enhance their ability to participate as fully-functioning members of the community. The substitution of human energy for fossil fuel energy also has ecological benefits by reducing waste, pollution, and conserving scarce resources.

Economic costs. The substitution of time, human energy and skills for money involves an opportunity cost that must be assessed from the particular perspective of the family's values and standards as well as consideration of the value of the homemaker's time in market vs. non-market work.

Socio-psychological costs. Families may experience stress if leisure time previously spent with friends must be sacrificed for household production activities.

Societal costs. Reduced consumption of market goods may produce higher unemployment and may mean fewer persons will use time for volunteer labor which has previously been an important economic contribution of family members to society.

Future Predictions of Lifestyle Adaptations

It is the prediction of several futuristic thinkers (Johnson, 1978; Zimmerman, 1978) that the *more with less* option is most easily implemented and will be necessary. Zimmerman (1978) predicts that there will be increased household production as a means of adapting to inflation, scarce resources and the availability of fewer jobs with more workers competing for these jobs. If the predictions were to come true, it is likely that many family members who matured during the "market goods era" but did not acquire very many skills applicable to household production activities would have much to learn. It is also likely there will be a need for family members to acquire complex information processing skills, decision rules for distributive justice, social decisions valuation processes, and leadership and negotiation skills.

Dr. Louis A. Iozzi of the Institute for Science, Technology and Social Science Education at Rutgers University suggest that, in the future, there will be a need for:

- Increased skills in dealing with problems containing multiple interacting variables.
- Increased problem-solving skills in dealing with a wider societal perspective.
- Increased critical thinking in the evaluation of consequences and implications of alternative actions.
- Increased knowledge of broad issues emerging and projected for the next quarter century and beyond.

Iozzi explains that effective problem solving requires simultaneous development in the realms of logical reasoning, moral-ethical reasoning and critical thinking. He suggests we need to give our students greater practice by exposing them to alternative viewpoints, helping them understand the perspective of others, assisting them in examining and clarifying values, examining consequences and implications of decisions and defending one's position. Iozzi did not mention the word *management* in this article; however, home economists will recognize his suggestions as important content of family resource management courses, both in the present and in the past.

The Home Economist as Educator

Lifestyle adaptations of families are more likely the result of direct impacts of rapidly increasing inflation and the slower rates of income increases rather then awareness or concerns for the global availability of non-renewable resources both now and in the future. How can home economists assist families in becoming aware of resource scarcity and the societal options available for resource use? Can home economists help families to recognize the impact of family decisions on the global ecosystem? What are the alternative uses of family resources other than lowering levels of living by voluntary simplicity, frugality or denial?

On a more *micro* level the home economist in the '80s will be called upon to assist families in extending income in an inflationary economy. What are the alternative ways of extending income other than second jobs and second-income earners? Can we assist families in the development of cooperatives, or encourage families to exchange services or to pool resources for expensive equipment or vacation sites? How can home economists best assist families in learning household production skills? What production skills are being transferred from one generation to another and what skills will be important? What kinds of problem solving and information processing skills are being transferred from one generation of the family to the next generation? How can home economists assist families in acquiring problem-solving skills?

The Need for More Resource Management Content

We suggest that there is a need to include more management subject matter content in the teaching, research and service activities of home economists if we are to meet the future challenges of our role as educators. The needs of the future suggest an important need to educate families in understanding the human-environment interface, a need which was recognized early in our history. The important interface between organisms and their world was identified by Ellen Swallow Richards in the 1980's as she initiated her second environmental science of home economics:

> The human-environment interface could be seen most clearly at its source; in the home and in the family. If the human organism is to live in harmony with the environment, it must be learned at the source. To do that, it is necessary to educate the largest half of the population: women ● (Clark, 1973; p. 79)

In the coming age of natural resource scarcity, humans are being forced to confront the close ties between people and nature with renewed attention.

How can we best prepare present and future home economists to provide the needed leadership is assisting families to develop complex problem-solving competencies required for situations with multiple interacting variables?

Need for Management Prominence in Home Economics

The development of problem-solving competency requires experience in analysis of complex public policy issues, development of alternative-mindedness, greater awareness of a wide variety of economic, social, human and natural resources, complex information processing skills, group dynamics and leadership skills and communication and negotiation skills. The content and skills mentioned have historically been included in home management-family economics content at several universities and need to be emphasized to a further extent in future course offerings.

We recognize there are differences among management educators concerning philosophy, thoeretical frameworks and emphases. Therefore, we feel that in the interest of clearly communicating our reasoning that we make explicit our concept of family resource management — its definition, purpose, focus and nature.

Definition. Management is consciously directed change. Management is also the conscious adaptation to change. Sometimes the change occurs in the environment of the individual and requires some kind of adjustment. In other cases, the change is conceived internally and is consciously directed to produce an effect on the environment. Regardless of where the change originates, it produces some kind of discomfort, risk or uncertainty which motivates the problem solver to mobilize resources toward change in the desirable direction. The desirable direction is a conception of the *good life* — values, standards, goals, aspirations and expectations. Social and economic decision making are at the very center of human existence. The absence of problems is absence of life.

Focus and purpose. Home management focuses on the family as a problem-solving group. The ultimate purpose of family management is to facilitate the optimal growth and development of all family members so they may function as productive, capable world citizens. It is in the family where decisions are made about energy use, about what human resources are created and exchanged, about how economic resources are transformed and allocated and about what technological resources are acquired.

Decision making and decision implementation are the crux of management processes. Making change happen requires mobilization of a complex mix of resources, understanding of social and economic valuation processes, and competency in communication, negotiation, motivation, leadership and supervision processes. Family resource managment is the most interdisciplinary, integrative subject matter in home economics. Preparation for teaching, research and international service in management involves, in addition to the home economics disciplines, study of anthropology, sociology, social psychology, psychology, ecology, philosophy, economics, family therapy, business, law and public policy among others. It is our feeling that such preparation will be of even greater importance to home economists in the '80s than it has been in the past.

Need for the Macro Emphasis in Family Resource Management

It is important that we assist home economists and families to go beyond the *organization* and *efficiency* conception of family resource management and to incorporate the macro view of the impact of family decisions on the ecosystem as well as to examine family adaptation to resource scarcity.

We agree with Brown and Paolucci (1979) that the mission of home economics is:

> to enable families, both as individual units and generally as a social institution, to build and maintain systems of action which lead 1) to maturing individual self-formation and 2) to enlightened cooperative participation in the critique and formulation of social goals and means of accomplishing them. (p. 23)

Family resource management as a subject matter in home economics has much to contribute in working toward both aspects of our mission. In past years, our teaching of personal goal setting, values clarification, and human resource development has contributed primarily to assisting individuals and families to maturing in individual self-formation. There will be a need in the '80s to work more intensively on assisting families to enlightened cooperative participation in the critique and formulation of social goals and means for accomplishing them. One of the critical issues of the '80s which will require critique and social goals will be the uses and allocations of non-renewable global resources. How can family resource managment educators assist families to enlightened cooperative participation in the managment of these critical resources for family and societal well-being? A complete answer to the previous question is beyond the scope of this paper but an important one for future discussions of home economists. At the least, our teaching of management needs to focus more attention on resources of the natural environment such as air, land, water, energy and food which North Americans have taken so much for granted in previous decades. Research is needed in order to determine present levels of awareness concerning water scarcity and distribution, losses of food producing land, and global supplies of fossil fuel energy. Research is also needed to assess the willingness of individuals and families to make lifestyle changes or to use various conservation practices such as increasing household production activities or recycling. The content of our teaching activities needs to place greater emphasis on the availability of natural resources as well as problems of distribution and management in meeting needs of the world population. ●

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* See the Conserver Society: A Blueprint for Optimum Resource Managment by Kimon Valaskakis, *Canadian Home Economics Journal,* Summer 1980, 30(30), 150-152, 160.

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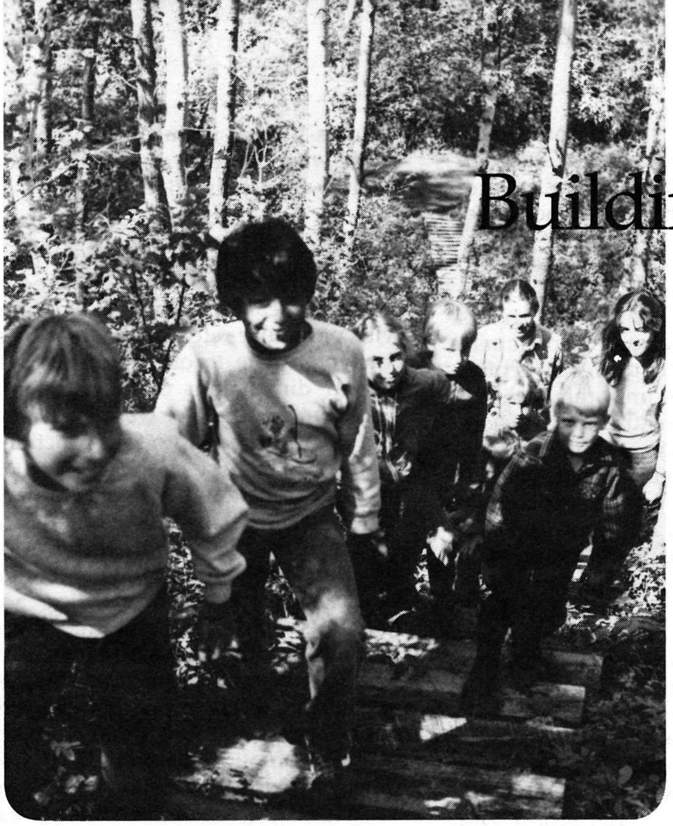

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Building Strong Families: Resources as the Building Blocks

Pat Leginsky

Abstract

Home economists are charged with the responsibility of enhancing the quality of family life. Before one can hope to meet this objective a conceptual model of strong families is required. Only then can specific strategies be developed and implemented. In this paper such a conceptual model is developed. Works by Olson, Sprinkle and Russell, Barnhill, and Stinnett are reviewed. The characteristics of the strong family are presented and discussed.

The family is viewed as an ongoing problem-solving unit that exchanges resources as a means of attaining the commonly shared goals. Resources are the fundamental constituent of problem solving. The characteristics isolated for strong families are thought to imply various interpersonal resources which are requisite for effective family problem-solving. Strong families are assumed to be resourceful units, and therefore are viewed as effective problem-solvers.

Résumé

Les ressources en tant que base d'une solide cellule familiale.

On attribue aux économistes la responsabilité d'améliorer la qualité de la vie familiale. Avant de pouvoir espérer atteindre cet objectif, il est essentiel d'avoir un modéle conceptuel de solides cellules familiales. Alors seulement pourra-t-on développer et mettre en oeuvre des stratégies spécifiques. Cet exposé présente le modèle conceptuel en question. Les travaux de Olson, Sprinkle et Russell, Barnhill, et Stinnett y sont examinés. La caractéristiques d'une solide cellule familiale y sont présentées et discutées.

La famille y est vue comme une unité résolvant les problèmes en cours et échangeant les ressources comme moyen d'atteindre les objectifs communs. Les ressources sont l'élément fondamental de la résolution des problèmes. Les caractéristiques que l'on a isolées concernant les cellules familiales solides sembleraient impliquer l'existence de différentes ressources inter-personnelles s'avérant indispensables pour la résolution efficace des problèmes familiaux. On suppose que les cellules familiales solides sont des unités fertiles en ressources qui sont donc á même de résoudre efficacement les problèmes.

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Home economists can help equip families with the resources needed to allow them to make the best decisions given their circumstances.

Home economists are one of many professional groups who develop and carry out programs directed toward improving the quality of family life. Working as family life educators, extension agents, senior citizen advisers, financial and consumer consultants, they are highly involved in the complex decisions related to program planning. While the focus of home economics has been in general a preventive one and provides some rationale for these programs, no particular conceptual view of family life has emerged which would provide a sound basis for our work with families. The absence of such an organizational view has resulted in programming which lacks direction or credibility, in that evaluation is diffuse and the firm ground in the available theories related to family interaction has been overlooked.

This paper will present a model for family programming which has particular relevance for home economists. This model is a healthy family model which incorporates the notion of resources, an area researched by the profession over the past twenty years.

The traditional model for much of the practical family work has certainly been the *sick family* rather than the *healthy family*. Much more attention (in research as well as practice) has been given to the family experiencing problems rather than to the family who is able to solve them. Yet it could be argued that while both need family programming, the information gained from healthy families has greater potential for a programming rationale.

Today the healthy family concept has been recognized as evidenced in the family literature. Stinnett (1979), Olson (1979) and Barnhill (1979) have all suggested that there are indentifiable characteristics of healthy families. These characteristics can help provide a sound basis for family programming.

A Review of the Healthy Family Concept

Characteristic of Healthy Families

Olson, Sprinkle and Russell, Barnhill, and Stinnett have independently identified the salient characteristics of healthy families. Olson, a family theorist, has reviewed the family theory literature with some reference to family therapy and has extracted two major dimensions of family functioning. Barnhill approached the healthy family concept from a strong therapy background. Stinnett identified healthy family qualities after analyzing the results of an Oklahoma family survey. The three different approaches will be reviewed with particular emphasis on the qualities identified in healthy families so that comparisons can be drawn.

Olson contended that two dimensions underlie the multitude of concepts in the family field regarding family functioning. By using inductive conceptual clustering based on factor analysis, Olson drew out family cohesion and adaptability as the two primary constituents.

Family Cohesion — Family cohesion was defined as the "emotional bonding members have with one another and the degree of individual autonomy a person experiences in the family system" (Olson et al, 1979, p. 5). Cohesion was seen as a continuum reaching from extreme enmeshment where over identification with the family resulted in extreme bonding and limited individual autonomy, to extreme disengagement or low bonding and high autonomy from the family. Olson hypothesized that a "balanced degree of family cohesion is conducive to effective family functioning and optimal individual development" (Olson, 1979, p. 6). The specific variables that depict healthy family cohesion include: high degree of emotional bonding, moderate dependence, semi-open external boundaries, open internal boundaries, strong marital cohesion, spending time together and alone, personal and family space, some individual and family friends, decision making with the family in mind, and some scheduled family and individual activities.

Family Adaptability — The second dimension, family adaptability, refers to the "ability of a marital or family system to change its power structure, role relationships and relationship rules in response to situational developmental stress" (Olson et al, 1979, p. 12). General systems theory (Buckley, 1967) was heavily drawn upon to explain the family as a system. Positive and negative feedback loops were assumed to play an instrumental role in the ongoing functioning of a family. Both processes were hypothesized as necessary for a viable family system. Viewing feedback on one continuum, the healthy family would have a "balanced" degree of feedback, a moderate amount of positive and negative feedback. It is believed that families are capable of change, adaptation and reordering their structure. The specific variables that indicate a healthy adaptable family include: a mutually assertive style of communication, equalitarian leadership, successful negotiation, positive and negative feedback loops, role sharing and role making, and rule making with few implicit and more explicit rules.

After identifying these two salient dimensions of cohesion and adaptability, Olson developed a circumplex model of integration. This model resembles Angell's (1936) model of family integration and adaptability, and Hill's (1949) model of dynamic stability. Olson's model identifies various family types whose functioning can easily be described by a combination of the variables associated with each dimension. The circumplex model describes 16 family types, four of which can be termed healthy families. The center circle encompasses the moderate degrees of cohesion and adaptability. It is here that families are assumed to be most functional and balanced. Change can happen to a family over time, and a family can move in any direction. Healthy and unhealthy family functioning is clearly distinguishable. Polar extremes are thought to be dysfunctional if a family exhibits these traits for extended periods of time. Healthy families will return to the moderate zone after a transition period or an advancement into a different stage of the family life cycle. Due to the inductive basis of Olson's model, its major contribution is the wealth of descriptive data about healthy family functioning.

Healthy Family Functioning

Barnhill (1975) has reviewed the concepts of healthy family functioning with particular reference to how these concepts relate to one another. Eight bipolar dimensions of family mental health and pathology were identified, and then grouped into four functional themes. The first category, identity processes, included the continuum of *individuation* versus enmeshment and the continuum of *mutuality* versus isolation. Individuation refers to independence of thought, feeling and judgement of individual family members along with a firm sense of identity and boundaries of self. Enmeshment, in contrast, refers to poorly delineated boundaries of self. Mutuality or the sense of emotional closeness and intimacy opposes the feeling of isolation or disengagement from others (Minuchin, Montalvo, Guerney, Rosman & Schumer, 1967; Wynne, Ryckoff, Day & Hirsch, 1958).

Change is the second theme which is assessed on the continuum of *flexibility* versus rigidity (to varying circumstances) and the continuum of *stability* versus disorganization. "Flexibility and stability are necessary in preference to rigid responses which deny the need for change, or disorganization responses to a unstable situation which prevent a clear view of real change" (Barnhill, 1979, p. 95).

The fifth and sixth dimensions of *clear perception* versus unclear perception (Ackerman, 1961) and *clear communication* (Satir, 1967) are clearly related in that they deal with the processing of information. The final theme, role structuring, incorporates the functions of *clear role reciprocity* versus unclear roles or role conflict and clear versus diffuse *generational boundaries*. Barnhill states that these eight dimensions are highly interrelated. In a healthy family, mutuality and individuation are most easily achieved together. This implies the necessity for considerable flexibility in the relationship and role expectations. Clear communication and perception facilitate role reciprocity which in turn contributes to a clear sense of generational boundaries. Clear boundaries promote stability and consistent behavior (Minuchin et al, 1967). "Mutuality appears as a central factor representing cohesion as a unit.

Facilitated by clear communication and role reciprocity, it in turn, promotes stability and leads to flexibility and individuation" (Barnhill, 1979, p. 97).

Synergy between Dimensions — Barnhill's model offers insights into the interrelationships between the various dimensions which characterize the healthy family. Recognizing these variables as a system, one can postulate that a certain degree of synergy exists and that all dimensions must be considered in concert. Rather than examining any one dimension in isolation a more global perspective would be meaningful. When one dimension is affected, all dimensions will be in some way affected. Barnhill hypothesizes that if a family improves its functioning in one area, it will likely improve functioning in other areas. This assumption, if valid, could have interesting ramifications for programming in family life education. Focussing on communication skill development may impact on the development of role reciprocity, clarity of perception and mutuality. Therefore it becomes necessary to study the finer points of successful communication in strong families to learn what the behavioral objectives for a program should be.

The Family Strengths Research Project

Olson and Barnhill approached the study of healty families from a theoretical perspective, whereas Stinnett draws upon the results of a field survey. The *Family Strengths Research Project* in Oklahoma involved 130 families from rural and urban centers. Six common qualities were isolated which were assumed to characterize healthy families. These qualities include: 1) appreciation — the ability to express appreciation and build one another up psychologically; 2) spending time together — the ability to "make things happen" and structure lifestyle whereby there is opportunity to do things together as a family; 3) good communication patterns — the ability to listen effectively, the ability to fight constructively and able to handle conflict in the open, the ability to share ideas about alternative ways to solve problems; 4) commitment — deeply committed to promoting each others' happiness and welfare, the ability to take initiative to structure time and lifestyle on offensive not reactive stance; 5) high degree of religious orientation — attend church and related activities together, plus a strong commitment to a religious lifestyle; 6) ability to deal with crises in a positive manner, ability to trust and depend on each other, and ability to deal with problems and remain supportive of each other.

In light of Barnhill's assertions, the qualities identified by Stinnett are probably interrelated, however Stinnett's design did not address these interrelationships. Stinnett's findings suggest that strong families tend to be at the high end of the continuum of the six qualities isolated. On the other hand, Barnhill viewed family characteristics as bipolar continuums, wherein the strong families were at one particular pole. This raises the question of whether Stinnett's findings are merely a subset of Barnhill's conception of bipolars. Alternately Olson views the strong family as "balanced", where a moderate amount of cohesion and a moderate amount of adaptability is exhibited simultaneously. Quantitatively this later model runs counter to the other two models. The polar extreme of each continuum is not assumed to be an optimal position in Olson's model. Although Barnhill addresses the interrelationship amongst dimensions, he assumes extreme polarity. For instance on the mutuality versus isolation continuum, Barnhill contends that a high degree of mutuality is ideal. If Olson were to comment, he would probably state that a balance between high mutuality and a high degree of isolation would be optimal. Inadvertently, Barnhill may actually agree with Olson, because of the grouping of bipolar dimensions. Barnhill identified mutuality verus isolation but later grouped this continuum with individuation versus enmeshment. It could be argued that these two dimensions could be viewed as intersecting. "Both individuation and mutuality are necessary in order to prevent enmeshment (closeness without autonomy) or alienation (independence without intimacy)" (Barnhill, 1979, p. 95). In so doing a "balanced" area may be established. So Barnhill may be addressing quality rather than quantity which was originally assumed. Stinnett, on the other hand, does not address the issue.

Resources of Strong Families

After reviewing the qualities identified by these three authors, one question comes to mind. How is a family cohesive or adaptable? These qualities describe the family interaction or function, but what are the basic competencies or resources necessary in a family before such interaction can take place? In order to properly identify these basic resources one must first extract the qualities most common to the writings of these authors.

Using deductive reasoning three salient qualities seem to exist in the literature just reviewed. These include: 1) cohesion or mutuality, 2) communication, and 3) adaptability, flexibility and the ability to solve problems. Cohesion in Olson's model is closely allied with Barnhill's dimension of mutuality and individuation. Stinnett wrote about commitment which logically appears to be a component of cohesion because it refers to the same sense of closeness. A different focus was used by each author in describing effective communication (mutually assertive communication, clear communication and good communication). Barnhill also adds clear perception as a very closely related dimension to communication. Adaptability in Olson's model is very similar to Barnhill's flexibility and stability dimensions. If one assumes that adaptability is a key ingredient to effective problem solving (Kieren & Tallman, 1972), then adaptability also incorporates the other dimensions of successful negotiation, decision making and the ability to solve problems constructively.

All these authors talk of families as being resourceful units. But what resources do strong families possess to exhibit these particular interaction qualities? Previous work by this writer may help shed some light on this querry.

Problem Solving Effectiveness

A study examined the resources dual-career couples identify in problem solving (Leginsky, 1980). In that study marriage was viewed as a problem-solving relationship and social exchange was used to explain the role resources play in the problem-solving process. Marriage was viewed as one means to overcoming the barrier in achieving long-term goals. Goals were seen as problematic in that their attainment is far from certain (Kieren, Henton & Marotz, 1975, p. 4). Using the social exchange framework the problem-solving relationship was described on the "basis of the benefits, costs and profits that such associations are expected to bring" (Homans, 1961; Blau, 1964). A closer analysis of social exchange indicated that resources were the commodities of exchange (Rodman, 1972, p. 61). Resources derive value as rewards or costs by virtue of their ability to meet needs or their "unpleasantness or interference with the performance of more desired behavioral sequences" (Simpson, 1972, p. 10). Profits may be determined by subtracting costs by virtue of their ability to meet needs of their "unpleasantness or intereference with the performance of more desired behavioral sequences" (Simpson, 1972, p. 10). Profits may be determined by subtracting costs from rewards. Maximum joint profit rather than individual advantage was assumed to be a basic underlying goal of the problem-solving relationship. The goal of maximum joint profit is problematic by virtue of the complexities involved in managing the allocation and exchange of resources (and the inherent rewards and costs). Resources were viewed as fundamental to problem solving and goal attainment.

The dual career lifestyle involves many varied and major strains (Rapaport & Rapaport, 1969). Despite these strains the couples in this study maintained the lifestyle and reported a high degree of problem-solving effectiveness (Leginsky, 1980, p. 100). It can therefore be assumed that these couples were members of strong families, and that strong families are effective problem solvers. Based on these assumptions the findings of this study take on new significance.

Communciation Skills and Perception

Communication was most commonly identified by the members of the dual-career couple for themselves and for each other. This finding serves as additional support for the conclusions drawn from the review of the literature. Relying on communication literature such as *Alive and Aware* (Miller, Nunnally & Wackman, 1975), one can hypothesize that communication skills such as disclosing, checking out, listening, and mini-contracting may be the necessary resources fundamental to good, clear communication. From Leginsky's research one can also assume that all family members must have some degree of these communication skills. In other words, having one good communicator in a family would not be sufficient. Although the message may be well sent, it may not be received effectively. This raises the issue of perception. It seems that it is important for families to have common clear perception of each other in order to facilitate effective communication. This means that each member of a family must perceive the other as having the resources necessary for effective communication. Clarity of perception would also be common to all strong family members. Therefore, self-awareness and awareness of others are important skills inherent to the communication process.

Stinnett's research suggests that the process of communicating may not be the only aspect. In addition, the content of the message is relevant.

Appreication for each other, verbally or nonverbally communicated, may be fundamental to strong families. This in turn may contribute to a sense of cohesion and mutuality. This emotional bonding may be a result of the process and content of communicating.

Adaptability

The above discussion illustrated the link between characteristics of healthy families and their resource base. A look at adaptability as another characteristic is also useful. Adaptability may call on a number of resources within a family unit. Flexibility, empathy and motivation (Kieren & Tallman, 1972) are three resources cited in the literature. Flexibility refers to an evaluation "which individualizes the spouse in the light of a specific situation as opposed to stereotyping both the spouse's behavior and the situation" (Kieren & Tallman, 1972; p. 248). Empathy represents "a person's ability to interpret his spouse's behavior in terms of feelings, thoughts, and motivation and to relate this understanding to the particular situation and the spouse's behavior in that situation" (Kieren & Tallman, 1972, p. 249). Motivation is defined as an affectual investment to effecting certain anticipated goals involving the spouse. Motivation is based on the need fulfillment concept (Maslow, 1968). When we view the family as a goal-seeking, problem-solving unit, motivation stems from the ability to clearly perceive what the goal (need) is. From the earlier discussion, it would seem that these resources need to be mutually shared by family members. Cohesion and communication impact on a family's ability to be adaptable. Family members may only be willing to act flexibly when they feel secure and accepted within the family unit. Clear perception of a situation, and the ability to communicate about the situation would facilitate a sense of cohesion. More alternatives must be generated in such a supportive environment. The probability of solving a problem is increased with the increased number of alternatives. Therefore, problem-solving effectiveness is influenced by cohesion adaptability and communication. Other resources, such as time, also are used by strong families, but the assumption is that strong families use these resources after the basic interpersonal resources have been developed.

Healthy Family Model Explicitly Stated

The foregoing discussion has implicitly developed a conceptual mode of strong, healthy families. More explicitly this model can be summarized in the following statements.

- Strong families are goal-seeking, problem-solving units. Goals are problematic in that attainment is far from certain.
- Strong families are effective problem solvers in that they are able to attain their goals.
- Strong families are characterized by various qualities as discussed in the above review of the literature.
- Resources are viewed as the fundamental component in problem solving. Resources are the commodities of exchange between family members as a means of goal attainment.
- These resources can be inferred from the interactional qualities characterizing strong families.

The above is viewed using a systems framework, wherein problem solving is an ongoing, dynamic process; the interactional qualities are interrelated as are the resources.

Application of the Model to Family Programming

"To enable families to function in their own strength is a precisely stated capsule of the unique mission of home economics" (Green, 1981, p. 14). Home economists are working in prevention, development and education as opposed to crisis intervention and therapy. As professionals we talk about the wellness and the health of families. We believe that enhancing and strengthing the quality of family life is extremely important to the emotional well-being, happiness and mental health of individuals. We learn most effectively by examining how to do something correctly and studying a positive model. While saying this, one wonders whether we actually utilize a tangible positive model such as the family health model described in this paper.

Focussing on resources of strong families affords one the opportunity of impacting the process of problem solving rather than the outcome. It may be agreed that there are no absolute right and wrong answers for contemporary families to achieve their goals. It depends on the circumstances. So training families about the *right* decision is inappropprate. Families need to be equipped with the resources that allow them to make the best decision given their circumstances. This leaves the responsibility with the family and the success of the problem solving will have long range influence on the future family morale, cohesion, adaptability and communication.

Defining a philosophy, explicitly clarifying assumptions and articulating objectives are only possible when a clear model is in hand. A model has been created by viewing the salient characteristics of the strong family. This model can be used as the basis for programming.

The resources necessary for strong families may be viewed as competencies, and thus the basis of competency-based curriculum of courses for families. Inherent in this concept, is the idea that these resources are interrelated and must be used together before effective problem solving can happen. Therefore, there is a kind of synergy or gestalt about the process. This concept has ramifications for instructional design of family courses. The courses, or potentially self-directed learning modules, would have to address the three domains of learning and allow ample time and opportunity for the *coming together of the whole.*

Further research is required. Information is needed as to whether strong families can identify their own resources and if so, what these resources are.

The model presented in this paper has the potential utility of being applied in a variety of situations, from a premarriage course to individual guidance of a particular family. It is time that home economists take a systematic approach to programming. The day is gone when a home economist can offer a course on family relations without clearly defining the purpose, learning objectives and benefits to the participants. Accountability demands a rigorous, systematic approach to programming. In order to meet that demand, a model of the healthy family is as necessary to the home economist as a model is to other artisans. Just as carpenters continue to sharpen their saws, so must home economists sharpen their tools of programming. Applied professionals are only as good as the theory they put into practice. ●

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Socio-Economic Characteristics of Families in Bankruptcy*

Résumé

Les objectifs de cette recherche étaient de brosser un profil socio-économique des personnes qui figurent aux dossiers des faillites dans le cadre du Programme Des Petits Endettés du Manitoba, dans le but d'éudier la structure des dettes dans les cas de faillites et d'analyser les causes de la faillite. Au cours de la période durant laquelle cette étude était en cours, le pourcentage des gens issus de petites villes et de zones rurales du Manitoba faisant appel au Programme Des Petits Endettés augmenta sensiblement. On remarqua une légère augmentation dans le nombre des femmes, des célibataires et des jeunes parmi ceux qui se déclaraient en état de faillite. Les compagnies de prêt personnel semblérent être les principales à octroyer du liquide aux individus en faillite; malgré que les magasins de détail supportent les dettes d'un plus grand pourcentage de personnes en faillite. L'octroi excessif de credit semble être une des causes essentielles de faillite. D'après cette étude, des services d'orientation financière devraient être ouverts à ceux qui se déclarent en faillite.

Tahira K. Hira

Few people would refute the fact that for most Canadians "put it on my account" has become a way of life. The use of consumer credit has been increasing sharply. Reflecting the increase in outstanding consumer credit (excluding mortgage loan), the number of consumer bankruptcies has increased dramatically. The number of personal bankruptcies increased from 4,671 in 1973 to 16,000 in 1978 (342%), while during the same period outstanding consumer credit increased from $18 to $30 billion (167%).

The number of people resorting to bankruptcy has climbed over the past few years in what many experts consider to be a direct relationship to the rise of easily obtainable credit. Although a considerable amount of material has been written on personal bankruptcy, very little research in this area has been done in Canada.

The purpose of this study was to identify the socio-economic characteristics of bankrupt individuals, to analyze the causes of personal bankruptcy in Manitoba, and to identify the debt structure of persons in bankruptcy. The results of this study are intended to provide information that will assist teachers, financial counsellors and credit grantors to develop preventive measures and creative solutions for the victims of a credit society, and make it possible for them to live more effectively in today's market system.

Canadians have been using more consumer credit in dollar amounts than ever before; 17 times more credit in 1978 than in 1951 (from approximately $2 billion to $35 billion). The per capita use of consumer credit also has increased rapidly during this period from $100 in 1951 to $1600 in 1978 (Canadian Statistical Review 1951, 1978). Even when the amount of outstanding credit has been adjusted for population growth and price changes, Canadians have used more consumer credit each year (Figure 1). As Cobleigh (1975) suggested, we may lull ourselves into a sense of false security by arguing that inflation makes it ever easier to repay money with steadily depreciating dollars.

Inflation also generates high interest rates which can and do make a big dent in family incomes, and in fact, Canadians are committing increasingly more of their disposable income to the payment of consumer debt. The ratio of total consumer credit outstanding to personal income has increased from .09 in 1950 to .25 in 1977 (Canadian Statistical Review).

Studies by Mathews (1969) and Hermann (1966) indentify that bankrupt individuals were predominantly men, married, under forty years of age, and with families slightly larger than average, working in blue collar jobs, and the majority of this group were renters. This age group is the one most subject to unexpected expenses and consequently make the heaviest use of credit.

Slavick and Burger (1975) cite credit and debt as the single greatest causes of bankruptcies. In some cases it is overwhelming debt itself that causes a person to file for bankruptcy. In other

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This research was conducted in 1978-1979 while the author was teaching in the Department of Family Studies, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg. The study was made possible by a grant awarded by the Faculty of Graduate Studies, University of Manitoba. **Dr. Tahira Hira** is now an Assistant Professor, Department of Family Environment, Iowa State University, Ames.

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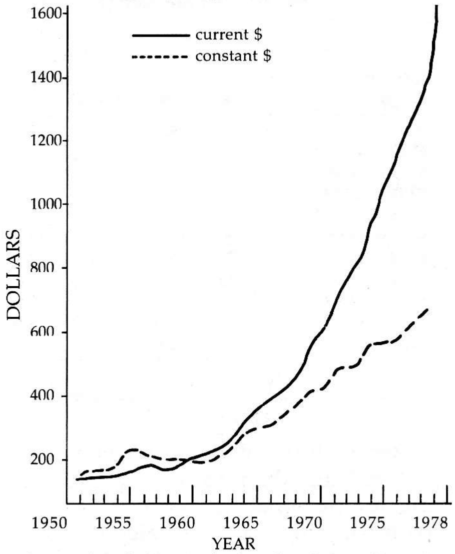
cases it is an unexpected occurrence which makes it impossible for the overextended debtor to keep up the already precarious juggle of debt and payment. According to Yeager (1974) as the percentage of households in debt increases, the ratio of liabilities to assets also increases for those households. In addition there is a consistent relationship between this ratio of liabilities to assets and of the per capita level of consumer bankruptcy. Stanley and Girth (1971) found that even though not directly proportional, when the debt: income ratio increases, the bankruptcy rate also increases.

Figure 1. Consumer Credit Outstanding per capita Canada, 1951-1978, in current and constant (1961) dollars.



Source: Canada Year Book, Canadian Statistical Review, both from Statistics Canada, Ottawa, various years.

There appear to be several reasons for bankruptcy. Fetterman (1976) argues that the most frequently cited reasons for personal bankruptcy are easy credit and poor money management. Stanley and Girth feel that the leading reasons for bankruptcy are having too many debts, unwise finanacing, and overspending. They, in fact found that decisions about borrowing depended on whether individuals thought their current income could support another monthly payment, not on the total cost of a purchase on their future goals.

Procedures

The main objectives of this study were to determine (a) the socio-economic profile of the people who have gone through the process of bankruptcy under the Small Debtor Program in Manitoba, (b) the debt structure of the bankrupt (i.e., sources of borrowing, types of debt and total amount borrowed), and (c) the major reasons for filing bankruptcy.

Data necessary to meet the requirements of the study came from the records in the Small Debtor Program in Manitoba. Application forms 140-CCA-1038 (7-73) for bankruptcy services of the Federal Trustee Office for the years of 1973-1977 were used.

Abstract

The objectives of this research were to prepare a socio-economic profile of persons who file for bankruptcy through the Small Debtor Program in Manitoba, to study the debt structure of bankruptcy cases, and to analyze the causes of bankruptcy. During the time this study was undertaken, the proportion of people applying for the Small Debtor Program from small towns and rural areas in Manitoba slowly increased. A slight increase was noticed in the numbers of female, single, and young people among those declaring bankruptcy. Personal loan companies appeared to be the largest dollar lenders to bankrupt individuals; although retail stores had debts from a larger percentage of bankrupt persons. Over-extension of credit appears to be a major cause of declaring bankruptcy. Based on this study, financial counselling services should be available to those declaring bankruptcy.

A random sample of 146 bankruptcy files were selected from a universe of 404 from the Small Debtors Program in Manitoba.[1] However, stratified sampling was done to have equal representation of cases from each year. The information found on the application forms of the selected 146 cases composed the data.

Summary information on distribution variability and central tendency was prepared to produce descriptive statistics. These statistics were used to generate tabular reports of absolute and relative frequency distribution for the variables such as age, education, income, family size, place of residence (rural/urban) and sources of debt.

Findings and Discussion

Socio-Economic Characteristics of the Bankrupts

Location. The majority of the cases (83.6%) filing for bankruptcy were from Winnipeg, which comprises only 54.9% of Manitoba's population (1976 Census). Consequently, bankruptcy cases are over represented in metropolitan areas. The rural percentage increased from 13.2% in 1973 to 19% in 1976, with a high of 27.1% during the year 1979. This general increase in rural areas may be due partially to the increasing awareness of the Federal Bankruptcy program in rural areas, and also to the increasing debt loads resulting from poor harvests for farmers during this time period.

Sex. Similar to the results of Mathews' study (1969) it was found that males accounted for most (83.6%) bankruptcy cases. That bankruptcy applicants usually are male is due to two reasons: first, should a family unit find it necessary to seek voluntary adjudication, the wife need not always participate by filing a separate or concurrent assignment; second, a number of assignments are filed soon after divorce, separation, or undisclosed marital trouble. Although most of these actions were filed by males, family units were intact when the debts were contracted. The percent of males filing for bankruptcy has varied for the four years of this study (Table 1) from a high of 91.3% in 1975 to 66.7% in 1977.

Table 1. Distribution of Bankruptcy Cases By Sex 1973-1977

	Male		Female	
Year	#	%	#	%
1973	32	84.2	6	15.8
1974	13	81.3	3	18.8
1975	21	91.3	2	8.7
1976	42	87.5	6	12.5
1977 (April)	14	66.7	7	33.3
	N = 122	83.6	N = 24	16.4

Marital Status. Most of the people who declared bankruptcy (78.8%) were married and living with spouses compared with the 45% of married persons in Manitoba's general population (Census 1977). A gradual increase in the proportion of singles filing an assignment for bankruptcy was noted over the four years, however. Separated, divorced or widowed persons now account for 14.4% of the bankruptcy cases, which is more than twice the number of single persons (6.4%) in Manitoba's general population (Census, 1977). Furthermore, the proportion of separated, divorced, and widowed in the study in 1977 was as high as 23.8%. This suggests that families facing financial problems due to separation, divorce, or death of spouse tend to seek solution in filing for bankruptcy or that a sudden reduction in income because of separation, death or divorce makes bankruptcy the only solution. Sometimes income is reduced by more than half, making it impossible for a person to keep up with the debt payment.

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[1] The Federal Small Debtor Program was first introduced in Manitoba in February, 1978, with the intention of serving the consumer debtor. This program is intended for people with heavy personal debts who are unable to obtain the services of a private trustee and who have no alternatives to meeting their debt obligations.

Age. The ages of bankruptcy cases ranged from 20 to 67, averaging 32 years (much younger than the average Canadian age of 43 yeas old) (Census, 1977). A definite clustering of bankruptcy cases appears in the under 25, 25-29, and 30-34 age grouping (Table 2); these age groups represented 68% of the total cases. About 45% of bankruptcy cases were under 30 years, and 70.3% were under 40. This age represents the stage in a family's lifecycle when expenses are likely to be at maximum with extensive use of credit.

Table 2. Distribution of Bankruptcy Cases by Age Group

Age	#	%
Under 25	23	15.9
25-29	42	28.9
30-34	34	23.6
35-39	19	12.2
40-44	12	8.2
45-49	4	2.8
50-54	6	4.2
60-64	2	1.4
Over 65	1	.7
	N=146	100.0

Not only was the majority of bankruptcy cases from the young, but the proportion under 30 years of age increased over the time, increasing from 34% in 1973 to 47.6% in 1977. That percentage was highest in 1975 at 52.2% and 50% in 1976.

Number of Children. Among bankruptcy cases the average number of children was 3.3, significantly larger than the average number of children for families in Manitoba which, according to the 1976 census, was 1.5. The majority of bankruptcy cases had one or two children; 20.5% had one child and 33% had two children.

Of bankrupt families, 51% had children under four years of age, 39% of the families had children from 5-9 years, and 35% had children over 10 years of age. It should be noted, however, that one family may have children in all three categories.

Occupation. Ninety percent of the Winnipeg bankruptcy cases were employed at the time of filing while the corresponding figures for all of Manitoba was 75%. The occupation recorded in each case was that of the person filing the bankruptcy; in the majority of cases it was that of the husband. The largest number of the bankruptcy cases were in the skilled labor classification and the next largest category was unskilled labor at 27.4%. About one-fifth of the bankruptcy cases were in clerical/sales and service occupations. The remaining cases were professional (.7%), unknown (3.4%), unemployed (8.2%), and other (8.2%). "Others" were students, retired persons, and welfare recipients.

There was a decline in the number of blue collar workers from 57% in 1973 to 28% in 1977, while the proportion of white collar workers increased slightly during the same period (from 36.8% in 1973 to 38.1% in 1977). A large increase in the proportion of unemployed (from 2.6% in 1973 to 23.0% in 1977) also was observed.

It is observed that this increase potentially reflects the general increase in the unemployment rates and easy availability of consumer credit in the country.

Car and Home Ownership Status. The majority of bankruptcy cases, 57%, owned a car but this proportion is much smaller when compared to 79% of the general population that owns a car. It was noted that 34% of those who owned a car were carrying a car loan varying from $1,000 to $7,500. In some cases the records showed that the value of the car was very little or that the individuals did not even own the car, although they were carrying a large car debt. During some personal interviews it was revealed that some cars were broken or repossessed, but car debt was still outstanding (Hira, 1981). The car debt is one of the expensive and important acquisitions for an individual or family. In order to manage car dollars wisely, however, one has to be an informed and skilled consumer.

Most of the bankruptcy cases in this study did not own homes. Only one in ten were home owners, a much smaller percentage than the 57% who own homes in the overall Manitoba population according to the 1976 census.

Income Level. Only 5.4% of the bankruptcy cases had no income in the year preceeding the filing of their assignment (Table 3). The range of income reported varied from $0-$9,800, averaging $5,900. Ten percent had incomes below $3,000. One third (36%) of bankruptcy cases had incomes between $3,000 and $6,000 and another 30% had incomes between $6,000 and $8,000. Only one in five (22.6%) had incomes above $9,000. Bankruptcy cases are, as one would expect, low income. According to the 1976 census the average family income in Manitoba was $11,533 per year.

Table 3. Income of Personal Bankruptcy Cases By Income Ranges

	Last Year's Gross Income		Present Net Income	
Income Ranges	#	%	#	%
$0	8	5.4	5	3.0
$1-$999	1	.7	3	2.0
$1,000-$1,999	1	.7	3	2.0
$2,000-$2,999	5	3.4	5	3.4
$3,000-$3,999	11	7.5	11	7.7
$4,000-$4,999	20	13.6	22	15.2
$5,000-$5,999	22	15.0	20	13.9
$6,000-$6,999	15	10.2	30	21.2
$7,000-$7,999	21	14.3	18	12.5
$8,000-$8,999	9	6.0	7	4.9
$9,000 & over	33	22.6	22	15.2
	N=146	100.0	N=146	100.0

An analysis of these income data showed that the number of people filing for personal bankruptcy in comparatively high income categories has increased over time, and the number in the lower categories has decreased. The percentage of people filing for bankruptcy in the $3,000 to $5,900 category decreased from 19% in 1973 to 6% in 1977. Contrariwise, the proportion of bankruptcy cases with incomes over $8,000 increased from 15.8% in 1973 to 42.9% in 1977. These changes reflect increases in the program income guidelines concurrent with numeric increases in personal income levels.

It was evident that the cases with relatively higher incomes were increasingly of a young age. One third (33.8%) of cases in the highest income category ($8,000 and over) were under 30 years of age. These results demonstrate that more and more young people with marginally high incomes were getting into financial difficulties. They were borrowing too much, too soon, were unable to handle their finances effectively, and found relief by declaring personal bankruptcy.

Debt Structure of the Bankruptcy Cases

This section deals with the total debts and the relative importance of various creditors. The total debt which the individual reported to the trustee was classified as secured or unsecured debt.

The total debt of individuals ranged from $1,100 to $21,500 and averaged $6,700. The total secured debt, (secured by mortgage, lien, pledge or other actual encumbrance on owned property) for a bankruptcy case ranged from a minimum of $300 to $10,000 and averaged $2,100. A large percentage, 44%, of bankruptcy cases did not have any secured debts, however. This likely is related to the increasing use of credit cards and to the fact that secured credit (unless on chattel, exempt from seizure) is protected against bankruptcy proceedings so persons with a high percentage of secured debt don't use bankruptcy as a solution. Unsecured debt (open charge accounts, revolving credit accounts, credit cards) ranged from a minimum of $1,100 to a maximum of $20,000 (only one case) and averaged $5,000. The maximum debt in this category is twice the maximum in the secured debt category.

Sources of Credit

Table 4. Sources of Credit For Bankruptcy Cases And General Population*

Sources	Bankruptcy Cases	General Population
Finance Company	44.1	8.8
Commercial Banks	18.3	60.0
Retail Stores	12.7	15.5
Credit Unions	5.8	14.4
Credit Cards	4.8	1.1
Relatives & Friends	2.7	**
Others	11.5	**
	99.9	99.8

*Consumer Credit Publication No: 949-4022 Statistics Canada. 1977

**Not available. Other sources for general group were trust and mortagage companies, life insurance, Quebec Savings Banks/Loans and Public utility companies.

The number of sources from which bankruptcy cases were borrowing money varied from one to seven. These sources were finance companies, retail stores, commercial banks, credit unions, credit cards, relatives and friends, and others. It should be noted, however, that a bankrupt may have borrowed from three banks and this would show up as only one source. The average number of sources of debt for bankruptcy cases was 3.3.

Consumer finance companies were the leading dollar source of funds (Table 4). Bankruptcy cases owed 44% of the total debt (against 8.8% for Manitoba's population) to these companies. Finance companies were a major source of credit for both total secured (36%) and total unsecured (61%) debt (Figure 2).

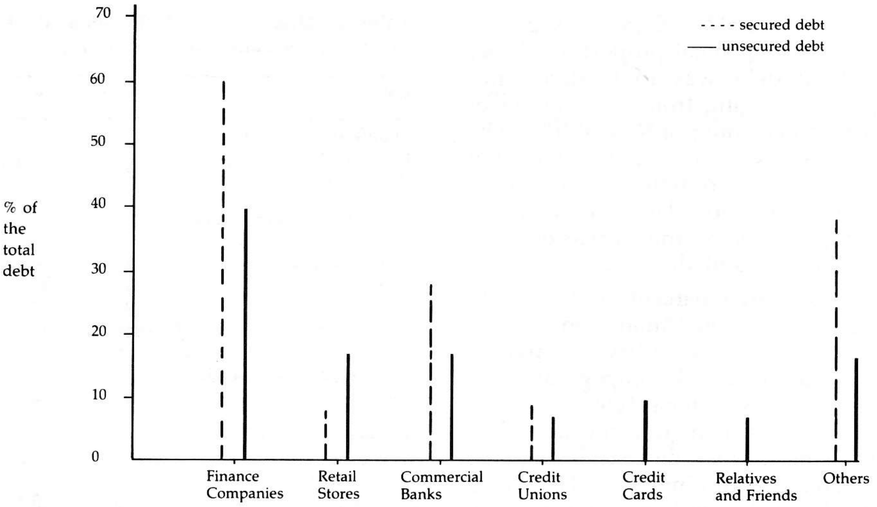

Figure 2. Percentage of debt owed to various sources by the nature of debt.

Since the data on these finance companies indicated only the name of the financial institution, it is difficult to determine whether the debt is a personal loan or a sales finance contract. The amount of the secured debt owed to personal loan companies by bankruptcy cases ranged from $1,400 to $9,800, averaging $1,300. The amount of secured debt ranged from $100 to $9,600 and average $700. The reason that some bankruptcy cases reported such a large debt to personal loan companies was, no doubt, because these companies make loans to the low income, risk population. In addition, loan companies not only lend directly, but also are involved in sales financing with no debt limit type of contract.

Commercial banks were the second largest dollar source of borrowed funds for bankruptcy cases. Eighteen percent of total debt for bankrupts came from the banks (Table 2). Commercial banks do have strict standards that have to be met before loans are granted. It appears that this group of bankruptcy cases was not using banks as a major source of borrowing. For the general population, however, banks are the leading lender (60% of the consumer debt comes from banks.) Banks held 13% of the bankruptcy cases' total unsecured debt, ranging from $100 to $9,000, and averaging $500. Banks as well held 27% of the total secured debt which ranged from $200 to $6,600, averaging $500 (Figure 2).

Retail stores were the third largest source of credit bankruptcy cases (12.7% against 15.5% for the general population). The majority of this debt is unsecured (Figure 2). This is not surprising since revolving credit is offered by most major retail stores. It can be concluded that retail stores do not distinguish between good risks and bad risks as do commercial banks. In this category, the total amount of debt ranged from $100 to $9,600, averaging $700. The secured debt ranged from $200 and averaged $50 but only 3% of the total secured debt came from retail stores. The vast majority of bankruptcy cases (70%) owed some debt to retail stores due to the widespread use of store credit cards.

Only 5.8% of bankruptcy debt (compared to 14.4% for general population) came from credit unions. Credit unions accounted for only 6.4% of the total unsecured debt and 5.7% of the total secured debt of bankruptcy cases. The unsecured debt ranged from $200 to $8,000, averaging $300; while the range for secured debt was $300 to $3,400, averaging $100. In this study, credit unions did not appear to be a significant source of funding. Perhaps the close relationship between the credit union and its borrowers enables such institutions to make a reliable evaluation of an individual's credit-worthiness. In addition, their payroll deduction method of collection may be a means of keeping their total debt to credit at a minimum.

Bankruptcy cases owed 4.8% of their total debt to credit card companies (other than those issued by the retail stores). All of it was unsecured. The amount owed to these credit cards varied from $100 to $7,500, averaging $300. A very small proportion, 2.7%, of total debt was to relatives and friends, ranging from a minimum of $100 to maximum of $9,900. It may be speculated that either people were not able to borrow from these source or the money owed to relatives and friends is repaid before the application for bankruptcy is filed.

Seventy-two percent of the bankruptcy cases owed money to "other" sources such as utility companies (Manitoba Hydro, Winnipeg Gas Company, and Manitoba Telephone System), government (income tax, UIC, fines), health spas, dentists, book clubs, magazines, and movers. They also owed money for items like encyclopedias, family record plans, pots and pans, and cookware. About 11.5% of the total debt (mostly unsecured) was in this category. This indebtedness ranged from $100 to $7,500, averaging $700.

Reasons for Personal Bankruptcy

Study of the bankruptcy files showed that every file carried an explanation of the cause of bankruptcy. This consisted of the explanation given by the bankruptcy case and comments made by the trustee as to the cause of bankruptcy based on the evaluation of the case. Remarks were summarized in the following categories: significant change in income due to unemployment; an involuntary assumption of debt due to illness, marital problems or personal liability suit; and lack of financial management leading to spending beyond the capacity to repay. The results of this study were similar to the findings of Stanley and Girth (1971), and Fetterman (1976).

Analysis of the records showed that in more than half the cases (52.1%) the cause was associated with lack of prudent financial management (Table 5). The second largest cause was involuntary assumption of debts due to marital problems and illness. It was surprising that in this sample nobody was forced into bankruptcy due to a personal liability suit. However, there were 12.3% who declared bankruptcy due to alcoholism, gambling, business failure and co-signing. Loss of income was not a major cause of bankruptcy for this group; only about 12.3% declared bankruptcy because of unemployment.

To gain some insight into the total debt burden of bankruptcy cases, debt-to-income ratios were calculated by

Table 5. Distribution Of Personal Bankruptcy Cases Causes of Bankruptcy

Causes	#	%
Significant reduction in income due to unemployment	18	12.3
Involuntary assumption of debt due to:		
-marital problems	9	6.2
-illness	25	17.1
-personal suit	0	0.0
	34	23.3
Lack of prudent financial management	76	52.1
Others		
-alcoholism	7	4.8
-business	6	4.1
-miscellaneous	5	3.4
	18	12.3
	N = 146	100.0

comparing their total debts with their most recent annual income. Most of the individuals were carrying a heavy debt burden (Table 6). Two-fifths (44.5%) of the bankruptcy cases had very high debt-to-income ratios (at least 1.0 to 1.24, Table 6). In other words, these individuals/families had borrowed money equal to or exceeding their total annual income. Another one third (37.7%) had total debts between 50 and 100% of their total income. It is general consensus that a debt-to-income ratio of .30 to .50 of net income (excluding mortgage debt) is burdensome, especially at a generally low income level. This guideline, moreover, assumes that the income will be continuous.

Thus, if one accepts the rationale of the above guideline, approximately 82% of the bankruptcy cases had overextended themselves. A close look at Table 6 also reveals that the debt-to-income ration appears to be high among the lower income group. It is not too surprising that they were unable to handle such a debt burden.

Table 6. Total Debt To Annual Income Ratio Of Personal Bankruptcy By Selected Income Ranges

		Number of Cases Reporting Ratio of Debt/Income of Bankrupts					
Income Range	Total Cases	.25-.49	.50-.74	.75-.99	1.0-1.24	1.25-1.49	15. and over
Less than $2,999	15	8	0	0	1	1	5
$3,000-5,900	53	3	13	11	2	11	13
$6,000-7,900	36	4	6	8	10	3	5
$8,000 & over	42	11	9	8	6	5	3
TOTAL	146	26	28	27	19	20	26
PERCENT	100	17.8	19.2	18.5	13.0	13.7	17.8

Summary and Conclusion

The objectives of this research were to prepare a socio-economic profile of persons who filed for bankruptcy through the Small Debtor Program in Manitoba, to study the debt structure of bankrutpcy cases and to analyze the causes of bankruptcy.

An average applicant for this program was a married male, 32 years of age, lived in Winnipeg and had 3.3 children. He was a blue collar worker with an average income of $5,900, and lived in rental accommodations. His average debts were $6,700 with $5,000 unsecured. He largely owed this money to a finance company, bank, department store and to door-to-door salesman. He also had minimal assets.

This study indicates that the proportion of people from towns and rural areas in Manitoba who apply for this program is slowly increasing. A gradual increase was also noticed in the proportion of females, singles, and younger people.

Some of the bankruptcy cases were as young as 20. This means that people are getting into heavy debt when they are very young; reflecting, perhaps, the lessening of the stigma in declaring bankruptcy. A special effort should be made in public schools to educate young people in money and debt management skills. When the typical bankruptcy case's age is considered along with the average number of children, the image of a young family again emerges. This type of family is involved not only with the basic expenses of a household but also with the expenses of the birth and care of a number of young children. With family responsibilities, poor money management or the occurrence of an unanticipated expense could lead to financial difficulties and consequently filing for bankruptcy.

According to these data, it appears

that personal loan companies are the largest dollar lenders to bankruptcy cases. A larger proportion of bankrupts owe retail stores, however. Consumer finance companies, more than any other financial institution, traditionally make loans to a higher risk market, which includes many of the potential bankruptcy cases (e.g., relatively young members of the blue collar worker class who do not have credit worthiness to qualify for other sources of funding). The part that personal loan companies play in the bankruptcy picture is important. First, they provide funds for the consumer to pay off existing obligations. Second, they provide funds for consumers to obtain services or goods such as automobiles, appliances, or furniture, either through the purchase of sales finance contracts or through direct small loans. It was anticipated that most of the debt would be secured since personal loans, either for the purchase of goods or the consolidation of debts, are usually made on a secured basis. Hence, it was surprising to find that personal loan companies also were the largest lenders as well as the most frequently used institutions.

Some of the causes of declaring bankruptcy are unemployment, marital difficulties, illness and overextension of consumer credit. Overextension of credit appears to be one of the major causes. During personal interviews with bankrupts, it was discovered that in many cases overextension of credit resulted from lack of understanding of the credit system and lack of money management skills (Hira, 1981). The findings of the study, based on interviews, indicated that people forced to declare bankruptcy did not view income planning as a major variable over which they had control. They became aware of their poor money management practices only after being through bankruptcy. Based on these findings it is recommended that the bankruptcy process should include specific access to financial counselling.[2] Furthermore, it appears that opportunities should be made available for people to learn the skills to manage finances in today's cashless and complex society to prevent crisis in the families of the future. For this reason it is highly recommended that personal money management and consumer education courses should be available and required at the high school level. Such courses should also be easily available in the form of adult education.

Limitations

It is recognized that this study is restricted since analysis was limited to the population of low income bankruptcy cases who qualified for the Small Debtors Program. In examining the characteristics of bankruptcy cases and reasons for declaring bankruptcy no effort was made to substantiate any particular theory. Further prediction was also not a goal of this study. Instead, the concern was to add to the understanding of a relatively new area of personal bankruptcy. ●

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[2] As a result of this study, the Bankruptcy Office in Manitoba and Provincial Home Economics Directorate have developed procedures for making Financial Counseling services readily available to people considering personal bankruptcy.

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Communication concernant les travaux de recherche

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Prévoyez dès maintenant de présenter votre travail de recherche à l'une des sessions de la Conférence 82 consacrée à la présentation de travaux de recherche. Veuillez vous inscrire le plus tôt possible si vous avez l'intention de présenter un travail, et veuillez soumettre un résumé de 300 à 400 mots avant le 1 mars 1982 au plus tard. Le résumé doit inclure les noms et l'affiliation institutionnelle des auteurs, le titre du travail présenté, les détails importants de méthodologie, les caractéristiques principales des données recueillies, et une claire indication des antécédents théoriques de l'étude et des exigences audiovisuelles. Le temps accordé pour chaque présentation sera de 15 minutes, plus 5 minutes pour s'installer, répondre aux questions et changer d'interlocuteur. Pour de plus amples renseignements, veuillez contacter: Dr. Tom Abernathy, College of Home Economics, University of Saskatchewan, Saskatoon, Saskatchewan S7N 0W0.

RESEARCH SECTION
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Comparison of Energy Consumption between the Microwave Oven and the Conventional Electric Range

Vicki McTaggart

Résumé

Comparison de la Consommation d'Energie entre le Four à Micro-ondes et le Four Electrique Conventionnel.

Quatre aliments courants ont été cuits tour à tour dans un four électrique conventionnel, sur un plaque à fourneau et dans un four à micro-ondes. Lors d'essais subséquents, deux puis six repas complets ont été préparés et cuits selon les trois méthodes ainsi que selon une méthode combinée suivant laquelle la moitié du repas a cuit dans le four et l'autre moitié a été préparée sur deux plaques à fourneau.

On a mesuré la consommation d'énergie au moyen d'un compteur Esterline Angus watt/heure attaché au four. Pour enregistrer la consommation d'énergie du four à micro-ondes, on a branché le four au fourneau testé.

La quantité des aliments et du temps de cuisson a affecté la quantite d'énergie nécessaire pour préparer les aliments selon les différentes méthodes. Le four conventionnel a absorbé plus d'énergie que les autres méthodes pour chaque type d'aliment préparé. Le four à micro-ondes a été le plus économique pour de petites quantités d'aliments. Cependant, pour de plus grandes quantités, c'est la plaque à fourneau qui a absorbé le moins d'énergie. La méthode de cuisson la plus rapide a été, en général, la plus economique.

Abstract

Four common foods were cooked independently in a conventional electric oven, on a surface element and in a microwave oven. In subsequent trials, complete two and six serving meals were prepared and cooked by the three methods as well as a combination method in which half the meal was baked in the oven and the other half was prepared on two surface elements.

Energy consumption was measured by attaching an Esterline Angus watthour meter to the range. When recording microwave cooking energy the oven was plugged into the test range.

The quantity of food and cooking time affected the amount of energy required to cook the food by the various methods. The conventional oven used more energy that the other methods for every food prepared. For small quantities of food, the microwave oven was the most energy-efficient. However, for larger quantities of food the surface unit used the least amount of energy. The most time-saving cooking method was generally the most energy-saving.

Promoters and educators are often heard describing microwave ovens as energy-savers. Not as often, however, is it mentioned that there are limits to this energy-saving potential. The energy savings depend on how the microwave oven is used and what types of food are being cooked.

Published research supports the claim that substantial savings can be made by cooking with a microwave oven over a conventional range. McConnell (1974) reported savings of 57.3% and 66.3%, respectively, when two daily meals were prepared in a microwave oven instead of a conventional range. Davis, Pratt, Reber and Klockow (1971) made the same comparison with a meal for four people and reported a savings of 37%. Lovingood and Goss (1978) extended the time frame to cover meal preparation for a week and found that using a microwave oven along with a conventional range saved between 24 to 35% compared to using the conventional range alone.

Technology is constantly improving the microwave oven so that the models available today may be more energy-efficient than those used by researchers in the past.

Vicki McTaggart is a former Food Consultant for the Food Advisory Division, Agriculture Canada, Ottawa, where this research was conducted in 1979. Enquiries may be addressed to Marie Slusar, Chief, Experimental Section, Food Advisory Division, Agriculture Canada, Ottawa.

The latest models have increased wattage output and improved distribution of energy withing the cavity.

This investigation was undertaken to determine whether the microwave oven could reduce energy consumption compared to the conventional range.

Initially, energy consumption by various preparation methods of individual food items was compared. Following that research, a similar comparison was made with a complete meal.

Method

Selection and Preparation of Food

A. Cooking Individual Items. Four common foods were selected: 500 g coined carrots, two loin pork chops 1.5 cm thick, apple crisp in a 20 cm square dish and a 2 kg pot roast with six of each of small onions, medium potatoes and carrots. Each food was cooked by three different methods: 1) in a conventional range oven; 2) on one surface element; and 3) in a microwave oven. The one exception was apple crisp which was not cooked on the surface element.

B. Cooking A Complete Meal. A menu was planned so that all of the items could be cooked by several different methods. The menu consisted of loin pork chops, potatoes in the skin, coined carrots and whole stuffed apples. Cooking procedures which had been developed, tested and determined acceptable by sensory evaluation in the laboratories at Food Advisory Division were used. The menu was prepared in two and six servings (Table 1).

The menu was cooked by four different methods: 1) in a conventional oven; 2) on four surface elements; 3) in a microwave oven; and 4) by a combination method such that the potatoes and apples were baked together in the conventional oven, the pork chops and carrots were cooked on two surface elements.

Equipment Used

An electric range, 30-inch manual clean oven (3000 watts) with two large elements (2100 watts) and two small elements (1200 watts), was used. A microwave oven (700 watt output) was plugged into the test range when needed. Attached to the range was an Esterline Angus watthour meter accompanied by a strip chart graphic recorder.

Table 1. Description of Foods Selected for the Complete Meal

Food	Quantity	
	2 Servings	6 Servings
Pork chops	Two 1.5 cm thick loin	Six 1.5 cm thick loin
Potatoes in the skin	2 medium (350 g)	6 medium (1080 g)
Coined carrots	200 g	600 g
Whole stuffed apples	2 medium (350 g)	6 medium (1080)g

Operation of Equipment

The conventional oven was preheated before the food was placed inside. When food was cooked on the surface element, the food was started cooking on the highest heat setting. Then the heat was reduced to the lowest setting which would maintain the desired temperature. According to the manufacturers' recommendations, the appropriate variable power settings were selected for each food when cooking in the microwave oven.

Collection of Energy Consumption Data

To determine the kilowatt hours of electricity consumed, the area under the curve produced by the graphic recorder was measured. In the case of cooking individual items, the experiment was replicated three times and the kilowatt hours averaged for comparison. Each of the eight treatments of the complete meal was prepared once.

Sensory Evaluation Procedure

A seven member sensory panel of judges was used to establish the most acceptable cooking procedure for each appliance in preliminary trials. The cooking time determined acceptable by the panel was used as the standard from which to measure doneness in subsequent trials.

Results

Cooking Individual Items

In every case, the conventional oven used more energy than any of the other cooking methods studied (Table 2).

Table 2. Energy Consumed when Cooking Individual Items by Different Methods

Food	Energy Consumed (kWh)[1]		
	Surface Element	Conventional Oven	Microwave Oven
Coined carrots, 500 g	0.240	0.661	0.213
Loin pork chops, two 1.5 cm thick	0.133	0.907	0.226
Apple crisp, 20 cm square dish	-	0.642	0.240
Pot roast, 2 kg, with vegetables	1.140	4.589	1.423

[1] Mean of three replicates.

The microwave oven used less energy than the surface element to cook the carrots but used more energy to cook the pork chops and the pot roast.

Cooking carrots on the surface element used about 12% more energy than when cooked in the microwave oven. McConnell (1974) reported that carrots cooked on the surface element used less energy (30% less) compared to cooking in a microwave oven. Gries (1976) found that frozen green beans (9-ounce size) could be more efficiently cooked on the surface element than in a microwave oven.

The microwave oven used about 40% more energy to cook the pork chops and about 20% more energy to cook the pot roast than did the surface element.

Compared to conventional oven cooking, the microwave oven used more than 60% less energy with every food tested. The energy savings in cooking in the microwave oven over the conventional oven ranged from 63% for the apple crisp, 68% for the carrots and pot roast to 75% for the pork chops.

This is consistent with Drew and Rhee (1978) who reported that the microwave oven reduced energy consumption by a half over the conventional oven when cooking a 1.36 kg beef roast. Gries (1976) found a similar trend when cooking a five pound rolled crossrib roast by both methods.

Cooking a Complete Meal

Energy consumption varied with the quantity of food, cooking method and cooking time (Table 3). When two servings of the menu were prepared the microwave oven used the least amount of energy and took the least amount of time to cook the meal. The surface unit used about 17% more energy than the microwave oven. The combination method and conventional oven alone used considerably more energy than the microwave oven or the surface unit. The combination method used 7% less energy than the conventional oven although the cooking times were the same.

Table 3. Energy Consumption and Cooking Time when Cooking a Meal by Various Methods

Serving Size	Cooking Method	Energy Used (kwh)[1]	Cooking Time (min)[1]
2	Microwave oven	0.58	25
	Surface unit	0.68	35
	Combination	1.49	95
	Conventional oven	1.77	95
6	Surface unit	0.92	40
	Microwave oven	1.18	44
	Conventional oven	2.17	95
	Combination	2.84	95

[1] One test only.

When the menu was prepared in six servings the surface unit used the least amount of energy and required the shortest time to cook the meal. The microwave oven used about 12% more energy than the surface unit. The combination method and conventional oven used considerably more energy. However, this time the conventional oven used about 10% less energy than the combination method.

Comparison to Other Research on Complete Meals

The trend in data is inconsistent with that reported by Gries (1976). When six servings of swiss steak, green beans, potato and fruit crisp were prepared by several methods the microwave oven used the most energy (2.53 kWh). Cooking on two surface elements (1.42 kWh) and cooking in an electric oven (2.35 kWh) used less energy than the microwave oven to prepare the meal.

Davis, Pratt, Reber and Klockow (1971) reported a different trend again. They cooked a meal of chicken pieces, whole potato and frozen peas for a family of four. The microwave oven alone used the least amount of energy (0.911 kWh) whereas a combination of microwave oven and conventional oven (1.740 kWh) and a combination conventional oven plus one surface element (1.438 kWh) used more energy. They concluded that from a time management perspective they would prefer the microwave oven/conventional oven combination. The microwave oven alone demanded too much of the cook's attention.

The discrepancies between the results of the present study and those reported by other researchers might partly be attributed to the different foods that were prepared, the different microwave ovens used and the fact that only one replicate was completed in this study.

Summary and Conclusions

The quantity of food, the cooking method and the cooking time affected the amount of energy needed to cook individual items and a complete meal.

As the quantity of food increased, energy consumption and cooking time increased while efficiency of microwave oven cooking decreased. The microwave oven used the least amount of energy to cook carrots and the two-serving size of the meal but used more energy to cook the pork chops, apple crisp and pot roast and the six-serving size of the meal compared to the surface unit.

The quantity of food had a greater effect on energy consumption in the microwave oven than the surface unit. For example, while the energy needed for surface unit cooking increased by a half from two to six servings the energy used in the microwave oven more than doubled. Drew and Rhee (1978) reported that when the load size was increased from one beef patty to a meat loaf, energy consumption increased nine fold in the microwave oven but only three fold on the surface unit.

Regardless of the quantity of food the surface unit and microwave oven used less energy than the conventional oven or combination method. Cooking time appeared to influence energy consumption. Generally, the longer the cooking time the more the energy used.

Discussion

As educators, it is our responsibility to instruct microwave oven owners as to the wise use of energy such as:

- Choose the microwave oven to replace cooking normally done in a conventional range oven, and
- Choose the most time-saving cooking method when deciding whether to cook in the microwave oven or on the surface unit.

Consumers should be aware that while the use of the microwave oven to thaw frozen foods is a great convenience, it uses more energy than thawing in the refrigerator. Ways of maintaining microwave oven energy efficiency include:

- Cover food whenever the manufacturer recommends to speed cooking;
- Use standing time to finish cooking; and
- Keep the microwave oven clean as spilled food absorbs energy that could be used for cooking.

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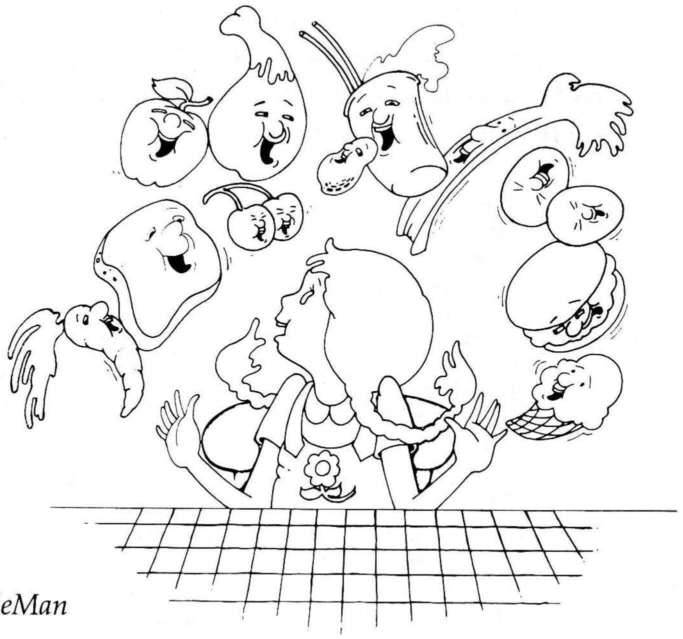
Additives are Good for You!



J.M. deMan

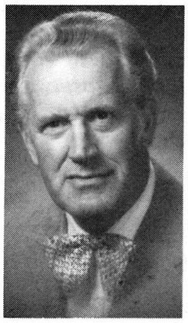
Abstract

The removal of all additives from our foods would not only be unjustifiable but would also be dangerous. Many of our traditional foods would disappear as would all of the modern convenience foods that have liberated many homemakers from the work of preparing foods from scratch. It is hard to envisage sending all working women back to the kitchen and the garden patch. Foods would be subject to spoilage and food choices would be strictly limited making it very difficult to obtain adequate and balanced nutrition. Spoilage would result in increased incidence of food-borne disease.

Résumé

La suppression de tout additif dans nos aliments non seulement ne se justifierait pas mais serait même dangereuse. Beaucoup de nos aliments traditionnels disparaitraient ainsi que tous les aliments modernes prêts à consommer qui ont libéré de nombreuses maîtresses de maison de la corvée de préparation des aliments à partir de la matière première. On peut difficilement envisager de renvoyer toutes les femmes qui travaillent à leur cuisine et à leur jardin. Les aliments seraient voués à se téteriorer et le choix des aliments serait extrêmement limité, rendant très difficile d'obtenir une alimentation adéquate et équilbrée. La déterioration aurait pour conséquence de multiplier les cas de maladies causées par les aliments.

Dr. J.M. deMan is an internationally celebrated food scientist, who has done extensive research on the effect of light on food quality. He has a PhD from the University of Alberta and is currently with the Department of Food Science at the University of Guelph in Ontario. Dr. deMan spoke at the 1981 CHEA Conference in Toronto on the topic of "The Impact of an Additive-Free World".



It is often stated, especially by those that are in the business of selling "health" foods, that all additives are harmful and should, therefore, be banned from our foods. It is amazing how many people take this statement for granted, just ask some of your friends and you will realize just how true this is. One of the reasons so many think of additives as undesirable is that few of the professionals who know better take the trouble to speak up on this matter. The food industry also must share some of the blame. It has become fashionable to advertise food products as "natural" or "free of artificial additives". This may be good for sales of some products, but at the same time, undermines confidence in our food system.

Is it possible to live without additives? If we did, would we be better off? Not many realize the impossibility or undesirability of banning all additives. It is interesting to consider the results of an additive-free food supply policy.

Both food additives and processing have the same objectives — to make food keep longer and/or make it more attractive. The two methods often merge as in heating, smoking, souring and fermenting. Fundamentally, there is no difference between processing and the use of additives.

FAO defines an additive as a non-nutritive substance added intentionally to food, generally in small quantities, to improve its appearance, flavour, texture, or storage properties.

There are three main types of food additives:

- Complex substances, such as proteins or carbohydrates extracted from other foods, e.g. caseinates as used in sausages, plant gums used in deserts, and enzymes.
- Naturally occuring well-defined simple substances such as salt, acetic acid, asorbic acid and phosphates.
- Synthesized substances not found in nature, such as dyes and pigments, antioxidants, preservatives and emulsifiers.

The food additives permitted for use in Canada are listed in the Food and Drug Act and are divided into 15 groups (Table 1).

Table 1
Food additives groups as listed in the Canadian Food and Drug Act.

1. Anticaking agents.
2. Bleaching, maturing and dough conditioning agents.
3. Colouring agents.
4. Emulsifying, gelling, stabilizing, and thickening agents.
5. Food enzymes.
6. Firming agents.
7. Glazing and polishing agents.
8. Miscellaneous food additives.
9. Non-nutritive sweetening agents.
10. pH adjusting agents, acid-reacting materials and water correcting agents.
11. (i) Class I preservatives.
    (ii) Class II preservatives.
    (iii) Class III preservatives.
    (iv) Class IV preservatives.
12. Sequestering agents.
13. Starch modifying agents.
14. Yeast foods.
15. Carrier or extraction solvents.

Illustration courtesy Ontario Milk Marketing Board.

An additive-free world would deprive us of a surprising variety of traditional foods as well as foods of more recent origin. Our food supply would be strictly limited, be less attractive, be subject to spoilage and cause disease.

The same people that often try to question the need for food additives also frequently create the impression that natural, i.e. non-processed foods are safer and better than the processed foods available in our supermarkets. A trip to one of the less-developed nations would soon convince these people that food-borne diseases are much more prevalent in such countries than in the technologically advanced nations where most foods are processed.

The use of additives has increased as more foods are processed to serve an increasingly urban population. In spite of the fact that Canada has more land than other countries, it is one of the most urbanized countries in the world. In 1851, less than 15% of the population was urbanized, in 1931, this figure was 50% and in 1971, 76% lived in urban centers of 1,000 or more. Over one-third of the Canadian population lives in 6 big cities. If the use of additives were discontinued, the food supply to these people would be disrupted, a good deal of the food would be subject to spoilage and the incidence of food-borne disease would increase dramatically.

It is possible to limit one's intake of food additives by limiting the use of processed foods. However, it is a fallacy to assume that all food processing, and hence the use of additives, is of recent origin. There are basically two types of processed or manufactured foods, the traditional ones which include such common items as bread, cheese, ham, sausage, bacon, wine and chocolate, and the more recent arrivals which include a variety of items ranging from snack foods to completely prepared meals.

Even primitive man realized that foods are unstable and that certain techniques would improve the storage life of many products. This is how the enzyme rennet came into use to make cheese. Wine was found to spoil easily because of bacterial infections and this could be overcome by burning sulfur in the barrels. Sulfur dioxide remains today a vital additive in the making of high quality wines. Making of cured meats such as ham, bacon and sausages requires the use of curing salts. These additives not only provide for stable and attractive meat products, but even more importantly, provide a good measure of safety against the threat of botulism.

An additive-free world then would deprive us of a surprising variety of traditional foods as well as foods of more recent origin. Our food supply would be strictly limited, be less attractive, be subject to spoilage and cause disease. A high price to pay for the removal of an unproven risk from our lives.

The people that advocate the complete removal of additives from our foods require nothing less but absolute safety. It is now recognized that absolute safety is not attainable. We discuss dangers in terms of risk-benefit. All human activity involves certian risks. The automobile is a good example. Society has accepted the automobile as desirable and as a result we strive to reduce the risk involved by improving safety through better cars and highways. Food additives can be treated similarly in terms of risk-benefit. The situation with intentional additives is rather simple since we know the nature and amounts of the various chemicals used in different foods. Newly proposed additives have to pass an elaborate safety testing procedure. Traditional additives are constantly being re-examined. The risk involved in the use of additives is small indeed and becomes insignificant when it is compared with smoking. It has been estimated that 35-40% of cancer deaths are caused by smoking. Yet this tragic and unnecessary suffering receives little attention.

Let us now return to the food additives groups as listed in the Canadian Food and Drug Act. I would like to deal with some of these in more detail. The first of these groups I would like to discuss is that of the coloring agents. Over the years the number of permitted colors has decreased. All of the fat-soluble synthetic dyes, the so-called coal tar dyes, were delisted. The only fat soluble colors which can be used now are of natural origin, such as carotene and annatto. The recent delisting of red No. 2 or amaranth in the United States created much public interest. The Canadian authorities examined the evidence and concluded that this compound was safe and, therefore, should continue to be used in Canadian foods. As a result of public pressure, there is a great deal of research going on dealing not only with finding suitable natural colors but also in combining colors with large inert molecules so that the resulting pigments would not be absorbed but pass through the digestive tract. The question has frequently been asked: Why do we need colors at all? Some maintain that colors are used for cosmetic purposes only and that is not a good enough reason to use them in foods. There is the philosophical question of whether improving the attractiveness of a food is a desirable thing. Nowhere but in our foods is the matter of attractiveness of such importance. Good looking foods heighten our enjoyment of eating. The arguments against additives make one feel that enjoyment of eating is an unworthy cause. I feel that good nutrition and enjoyment are both essential characteristics of eating. Even animals have definite food preferences and dislikes. In this respect, the use of food colors is not different from the wearing of neckties, and jewelry and the use of cosmetics.

A few words about food enzymes. The example of the use of rennet in cheesemaking indicates a use of an enzyme that goes back into antiquity. With our increasing knowledge about the action of enzymes to modify foods, we have opened up many new processes. The enzymes are obtained from animal and plant sources or from microorganisms. Without these materials many new process technologies would be impossible.

The non-nutritive sweetening agents are a small group about which much has been written. Both saccharin and cyclamate have been banned but even the anti-additive people have questioned the wisdom of this decision. The agrument in favor of these sweeteners is that they substitute for sugar. The risk-benefit equation is being applied. A new non-nutritive sweetener, aspartame, has recently been approved for use.

Perhaps the most important group of additives is that of the preservatives. They serve the essential function of preventing spoilage. Some of these preservatives have been used for centuries. Examples are sulfur dioxide for preservation of wine and dried fruits and nitrite in the curing of meats. Smoke has been used for centuries as a food preservative. We realize now that smoke may contian polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons which are proven carcinogens. In commercial practice, much of the smoke effect is now accomplised with liquid smoke from which the polycyclic aromatic hydrocarbons have been removed. This is an example of the progress in industrial food processing which has resulted in safer foods. The backyard barbecue is definitely inferior to industrial practice!

Table 2

Gastric cancer death rates in men in the United States, 1930-1968

Age-adjusted death rates per 100,000 for stomach cancer 1964-1965

Country	Death rte M	Death rte F
United States	10.45	5.13
Canada	17.96	8.13
Australia	15.48	7.95
Austria	42.11	23.62
Bulgaria	40.56	26.67
Czechoslovakia	42.74	22.59
Denmark	21.76	13.39
England, Wales	23.42	11.46
Finland	39.66	20.38
France	21.44	10.63
Germany (F.R.)	37.09	20.69
Greece	16.49	10.04
Hungary	42.74	23.18
Ireland	23.88	15.94
Italy	33.61	17.81
Netherlands	28.26	15.18
New Zealand	16.54	8.33
Northern Ireland	21.87	13.59
Norway	26.01	14.63
Poland	44.18	21.17
Scotland	25.47	14.90
Sweden	22.04	12.03
Switerland	26.04	14.90
Yugoslavia	21.10	11.95

Source: Panic in the Pantry by E.M. Whelan and F.J. Stare, Atheneum, New York. 1976.

If our food supply would be as unsafe as the "natural" food proponents would make you believe, then this would show up in cancer statistics and longevity figures. The facts are enlightening. It is evident that in both Canada and the United States the overall death rate of cancer is fairly static with two exceptional trends. One is the upward trend in lung cancer, attributed to smoking, the other is the downward trend in stomach cancer for which there is no obvious explanation. You can be assured that if the trend was in the other direction our food supply would be questioned. It is now known that many natural substances produced by moulds are extremely carcinogenic. Mouldy foods may be "natural" but evidence is mounting that unhygienic conditions and partial spoilage may have very undesirable effects. It is interesting to compare the death rate from stomach cancer for various countries (Table 2). Countries with the most highly processed food supply also have the lowest death rate for stomach cancer. It is reasonable to expect that removal of all additives would eventually result in an undesirable change in these statistics.

> *A trip to one of the less-developed nations would soon convince people that food-borne diseases are much more prevalent in such countries than in the technologically adanced nations where most foods are processed.*

To put the risk from food additives in perspective, it is well to look at the loss of working lifespan from various causes. This information for the United States in 1968 is presented in Table 3.

In spite of the fact that additives are an essential part of our food supply, the life expectancy of Canadians continues to increase as is shown in Table 4. For those that tell us that our foods are getting worse, these statistics must provide some food for thought.

Table 3

Loss of working lifespan in the U.S. in 1968 from various causes.

Cause	Work years lost*	Percent of total
Accident and violence		
Automobile accidents	1,533,102	11
Other accidents	1,262,415	9
Homicide	397,668	3
Suicide	389,733	3
Total	3,582,918	26
Vascular diseases		
Heart disease	1,610,142	12
Cerebral vascular diseases	431,973	3
Other	578,801	4
Total	2,620,916	19
Infant mortality	1,970,489	14
Cancer	1,744,189	13
Respiratory diseases	968,064	7
Congenital diseases	674,465	5
Infectious diseases	291,185	2
Total	11,852,226	86
All causes	13,687,716	100

* Working life is considered to extend for 45 years, from age 20 to age 65. Deaths occurring before the age of 20 each contribute 45 lost years to the total, and those occurring between 20 and 65 contribute appropriately fewer, and deaths after 65 do not count.

Source: *Cancer: Science and Society* by J. Cairns. W.H. Freeman and Comp., San Francisco. 1978.

Table 4

Life expectancy in Canada

	1971	1976
M- 0	69.3	70.3
F - 0	76.4	77.8
M-20	71.7	74.7
F -20	78.7	81.7
M-40	72-73.2*	76.0
F -40	73-79*	82.5

* 1921-1971

In conclusion, it can be stated that removal of all additives from our foods would not only be unjustifiable but also would be dangerous. Many of our traditional foods would disappear as would all of the modern convenience foods that have liberated many homemakers from the work of preparing foods from scratch. It is hard to envisage sending all working women back to the kitchen and the garden patch. Foods would be subject to spoilage and food choices would be strictly limited making it very difficult to obtain adequate and balanced nutrition. Spoilage would result in increased incidence of food-borne disease. Can you imagine living under such circumstances? ●

Food Additives Education Program

A national consumer survey on food additives was conducted during the summer of 1979 by the Health Protection Branch of the Department of National Health and Welfare. Almost 25,000 Canadians volunteered to complete a questionnaire designed to measure knowledge and attitudes toward food additives and perception of additives in relation to safety of the food supply.

Many areas of confusion and concern were identified from the responses. Lack of knowledge regarding the definition, labelling and sources of additives in food was registered and uneasiness expressed as to their control, purpose and health effects.

The survey findings are summarized in Dispatch #48, available on request from Educational Services, Health Protection Branch, Ottawa, K1A 1B7. The full report entitled *Food Additives — What Do You Think?* is also available in limited quantities.

The editors regret and apologize for the error in the printing of the article, *Technological Changes in Foods* by Marion Vaisey-Genser which appeared in the last issue of the CHEJ on page 199. A reprint of the article is included as an insert in this issue.

Ecoles de Cuisine Internationales

International Cooking Schools

Nancy Scrutton

La popularité de la cuisine internationale ne cesse de se développer. A une époque où l'Europe n'est qu'à trois heures de l'Amérique de Nord en Concorde, il n'est pas surprenant de trouver des gens qui voyagent à l'étranger pour découvrir la culture, le paysage et pour étudier la cuisine régionale. De nombreux auteurs dont les livres de cuisine sont devenus des best sellers internationaux ont répondu à cet intérêt par la création de cours de cuisine de printemps, d'été et d'automne. Ils ne durent, en général, pas plus d'une ou deux semaines de sorte à correspondre aux périodes de vacances et ils se tiennent fréquemment dans le propre domicile de l'auteur, bien que quelquefois ils aient lieu dans des écoles spécialement conçues pour cela. La plupart de ces cour sont limités quant au nombre d'inscriptions et exigent la participation active des étudiants. En plus d'assister à des conférences et à des démonstrations, les participants apprennent des techniques d'experts leur permettant de réaliser leurs propres chefs d'oeuvre — sous l'oeil attentif du Grand Chef.

La liste suivante n'est en aucun cas exhaustive mais elle contient les cours les plus populaires à l'heure actuelle. Certaines dates spécifiques sont souvent plus populaires que d'autres et sont réservées jusqu'à un an à l'avance. Vous devez prèvoir longtemps à l'avance si vous souhaitez vous inscrire à l'une de ces écoles. Les prix ne sont pas mentionnés ici car ils changent chaque année. Les écoles disposent d'excellentes brochures renfermant tous les détails nécessaires quant au prix, hébergement, voyage, etc. Beaucoup d'écoles offrent des programmes destinés à l'époux (se) ou l'ami (e) non inscrit au cours. Autrement dit, l'ami(e) ou l'époux(se) peut participer à toutes les excursions, dîners, etc. — tout sauf les cours proprement dits-à un tarif réduit. Cela encourage des couples tels que mari et femme ou deux amis(es) à venir à l'école, vu que souvent les gens n'aiment pas faire de longs voyages seuls. Chaque école étrangère, sauf La Varenne, a un point de chute en Amérique, ce qui accélère la correspondance at rend plus facile le paiement en dollars américains.

- **Julie Dannenbaum,**
  Creative Cooking Incorporated,
  2044 Rittenhause Square,
  Philadelphia, PA 19103.

Des Cours de Cuisine Italienne sont offerts tous les étés au Palais Gritti à Venise en Italie. Mme Dannenbaum offre également des cours de cuisine aux USA pendant l'année à: The Greenbrier Cooking School, White Sulphur Springs, West Virginia, 24986.

- **Guiliano Bugialli's Cooking in Florence,**
  c/o Mrs. Audrey Berman,
  2830 Gordon Street,
  Allentown, Pennsylvania 18104.

The popularity of International Cuisine has been growing rapidly. At a time when Europe is only three hours away from North America by Concorde jet it is not surprising to find people travelling to foreign countries to experience the culture, scenery, and to study regional cuisine. Many authors whose cookbooks have become international best sellers have responded to this interest by creating spring, summer and fall cooking classes. These are usually for short durations of one or two weeks to suit vacation schedules and are frequently conducted in the author's private home, but sometimes in specially designed "schools". Most of these classes are limited in size and designed for maximum student participation. As well as lectures and demonstrations, attendees learn expert techniques by creating masterpieces of their own — under the careful tutelage of the Master Chef.

The following list is by no means exhaustive, but contains the most popular of the present day courses. Often specific dates are more popular than others and are booked a year in advance. Long range planning is a must if you would like to attend one of these schools. Prices are not included here as they change annually. The schools provide excellent brochures with all the necessary details pertaining to price, accommodation, travel, etc. Non-cooking spouse or friend programmes are included in many schools. This means that a friend or spouse can participate in all tours, dinners, and other events — everything except the actual classes — for a reduced rate. This encourages teams such as husband and wife, or two friends, to come to the school, as often people do not like to travel so far alone. Each foreign school, except La Varenne, has an American contact, making correspondence quicker and payment in U.S. funds much easier.

- **Julie Dannenbaum**
  Creative Cooking Incorporated
  2044 Rittenhause Square,
  Philadelphia, PA 19103 U.S.A.

Courses in Italian Cuisine are offered each summer at the Gritti Palace, Venice, Italy. Ms. Dannenbaum also offers cooking lessons in the U.S. during the year at: The Greenbrier Cooking School, White Sulphur Springs, West Virginia, 24986.

- **Guiliano Bugialli's Cooking in Florence.**
  c/o Mrs. Audrey Berman,
  2830 Gordon Street,
  Allentown, Pennsylvania 18104, U.S.A.

Bugialli is the author of several cook books on Italian cuisine. The June Programme is called *Art in Food* — a blending of food and art work of the Renaissance. Included are classes plus tours of

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Nancy Scrutton is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Home Economics, University of Windsor in Ontario. She has a BA from the University of Windsor and a MA from Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan.

Bugialli est l'auteur de plusieurs livres de cuisine traitant la cuisine italienne. Le programme de juin s'intitule *L'art desla cuisine* — un mélange d'oeuvres de la Renaissance sur la cuisine et l'art. Ce programme comprend des cours ainsi que des excursions dans Florence et sa région. Les programmes de juillet durent d'une à trois semaines et recouvrent la cuisine italienne ainsi que les excursions. Un *Cours d'automne sur le gibier et les truffes* a également lieu en septembre pendant deux semaines.

L'hébergement est compris dans le prix. Le programme pour l'époux(se) ou l'ami(e) non inscrit est offert.

- **Gourmet's Oxford,**
  Oxford Centre for Management Studies,
  Kennington,
  Oxford, England 0XL 5NY.

Ce cours se tient seulement durant une semaine du mois d'août. Il comprend des cours de cuisine se concentrant sur la cuisine englaise. Les après-midi sont réservés aux excursions dans des endroits tels qu'une Grande Cuisine du 14^e siècle à Stanton Harcourt Manor, un village du 13^e siècle pour y prendre le thé avec le vicaire de l'église, et des visites à Stratford-on-Avon.

L'hébergement est inclus. Le programme pour l'époux(se) ou l'ami(e) non inscrit est offert.

- **Marcella Hazen, Creative Italian Cooking,**
  P.O. Box 285,
  Ardeville, New York 19019.

Ecrivain et cuisinière populaire, Marcella Hazen donne des cours en mai, juin et septembre à Bologne, et Italie. Ces cours durent sept jours et comprennent des excursions à Parme et dans la campagne. Des cours de Noël se donnent aussi à Venise.

L'hébergement est compris. Le programme pour l'époux(se) ou l'ami(e) non inscrit est offert.

- **La Varenne Ecole de Cuisine,**
  34 Rue St. Dominique,
  75007 Paris, France.

Cette école a été baptisée d'après La Varenne (1615-1678), fondateur de la Cuisine Française Classique et auteur du premier livre de cuisine français moderne. Sa fondatrice est Anne Willan, écrivain gastronomique et historienne.

Des cours d'une semaine sont offerts en été. Les sujets comprennent *Le cuisinier d'été, Pâtisserie intensive I et II*, etc. Pour les étudiants de la Cuisine Française Classique, des cours de longueur et degré de difficulté variés se donnent toute l'année.

L'hébergement n'est pas compris. Il n'existe pas de programme pour l'époux(se) ou l'ami(e) non inscrit.

En automne, les Chefs de La Varenne font une tournée des USA et offrent des cours en différents endroits. Les renseignements concernant ces derniers peuvent être obtenus en écrivant à: Culinary Center of Vermont, Box JAB, Stowe, Vermont 05672.

- **Roger Vergé, Cuisine Nouvellee de France Inc.,**
  Suite PH2, 44 Jackes Ave.,
  Toronto, Ontario M4T 1E5.

Ches Vergé, les cours sont offerts de la mi-février à la mi-octobre à l'Ecole du Moulin, dans le village de Mougins, en France.

Les cours ont lieu cinq matinées par semaine et les après-midi sont libres. Il y a aussi deux jours d'activitiés prévus.

L'hébergement est inclus. Il n'existe pas de programme pour l'époux(se) ou l'ami(e) non inscrit.

Les écoles ci-dessus sont de loin les plus populaires. Cependant, de nombreux chefs expérimentés et des cuisiniers professionnels offrent des cours pour groupes ou individus à leur domicile, en France ou en Italie. Des petites annonces publicitaires à cet effet se trouvent dans les magazines gastronomiques et risquent de séduire ceux qui préfèrent l'ambiance plus détendue d'un petit groupe. ●

Florence and area. July programmes last one to three weeks and cover Italian cuisine plus tours. An *Autumn Game and Truffle Course* is also held for two weeks in September.

Accommodations are included in the price. Non-cooking spouse or friend programme.

- **Gourmet's Oxford**
  Oxford Center for Management Studies,
  Kennington,
  Oxford, England 0X1 5NY

This course is held only one week during August. Included are cooking classes with emphasis on English Cuisine. Afternoons are filled with tours to such places as the 14th Century Great Kitchen at Stanton Harcourt Manor, teas with a Vicar of a 13th Century Village Church, plus visits to Stratford-on-Avon.

Accommodations are included. Non-cooking spouse or friend programme available.

- **Marcella Hazen, Creative Italian Cooking,**
  P.O. Box 285
  Ardeville, New York 10919, U.S.A.

Popular writer and cook Marcella Hazen holds classes during May, June and September in Bologna, Italy. These classes last seven days, and include tours to Parma and the countryside. Christmas courses are held in Venice, as well.

Accommodations are included. Non-cooking spouse or friend programme available.

- **La Varenne Ecole de Cuisine,**
  34 Rue St. Dominique,
  75007 Paris, France

This school was named after La Varenne (1615-1678) founder of the French Classical Cooking and author of the first modern French cookbook. Its founder is Anne Willan, food writer and historian.

One week courses are offered in the summer. Topics include *The Summer Cook, Intensive Pastry I & II*, and others. For students of Classical French Cuisine, courses of varying length and difficulty are held all year long.

Accommodations are not included. No non-cooking spouse or friend programme.

In the Fall, the La Varenne Chefs tour the U.S. holding classes at various locations. Information on these can be had from: Culinary Center of Vermont, Box JAB, Stowe, Vermont 05672, U.S.A.

- **Roger Vergé,**
  Cuisine Nouvelle de France Inc.,
  Suite PH2, 44 Jackes Ave.,
  Toronto, Ontario M4T 1E5

Courses are held from mid-February to mid-October at Vergé's, l'Ecole du Moulin in the village of Mougins, France.

Classes are five mornings, with afternoons free. There are two days of activities planned as well.

Accommodations are included. No non-cooking spouse or friend programme.

The above schools are by far the most popular. However, many well-trained chefs and professional cooks offer lessons for groups or individuals in their homes in France and Italy. Small advertisements to this effect are often found in food magazines and may well appeal to those who like a more informal, small group atmosphere. ●

MOVING?? Let CHEA Know

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Canadian Fashionmakers

Rose Fedorak

Summary

The garment industry became a fashion industry during the second world war when European designs were not available to import and to copy. Following the war, manufacturers and designers formed organizations to promote the industry and the fashions of this country. The industry began hiring designers during the sixties, and today, almost 20 years later, many of these have become recognized at home and abroad. A brief discussion of the work of some of these Canadian designers is included.

Résumé

Les couturiers canadiens

L'industrie du vêtement est devenue une industrie de la mode au cours de la deuxième guerre mondiale lorsque les modèles européens ne pouvaient être importés ni reproduits. A la suite de la guerre, les fabriquants et les modélistes ont formé des organisations destinées à promouvoir l'industrie et la mode de ce pays. L'industrie a commencé à embaucher des modélistes dans les années 60, et, aujourd'hui, presque 20 ans plus tard, beaucoup d'entre eux connaissent une certaine notoriété dans leur pays et à l'étranger. Une brève discussion du travail de quelques-uns de ces modélistes est présentée ici.

When does a garment industry become a fashion industry? When ideas are no longer imported; when designs are created at home; when originals from another country are no longer purchased and copied. In North America this happened during World War II when European fashions were not available for inspiration and our own designers had to creatively meet the demands of consumers.

Canadian designers did not suddenly spring out of the woodwork in the '40s and become known. In fact it took many years of determined effort by various groups and individuals before designers' names became familiar to consumers. The Montreal Fashion Institute in the '40s, the National Associated Women's Wear Bureau and the Association of Canadian Couturiers in the '50s, and the Montreal Dress and Sportswear Manufacturer's Guild, The Apparel Manufacturers Export Group of Ontario and Le Group in the '60s are just a few of the organizations whose aim it was to promote the industry and/or designers.

In spite of these efforts Canadian designers were not making an impact internationally, and perhaps weren't all that successful at home. It seems that Canada made good quality clothing, wearable basics and functional, warm winter wear, but no designers names stand out. In fact Canadian fashions were criticized for looking "too American" (Millyard, 1967). However, Canadian women seemed to like the home produced fashions even without designers' labels because these garments suited the climate and lifestyle better than the European imports (Keith, 1945). Montreal fashions were sought for their European influence (Foreign Trade, 1960).

It wasn't until the '60s that manufacturers began to show an interest in Canadian designers; Auckie Sanft hiring John Warden in 1964 and Jack Margolis of Bagatelle hiring Margaret Godfrey in 1966. Various designers had established a couture business before this time, but by the latter part of the '60s it appeared that profits were in ready-to-wear.

The early '70s saw the development of Fashion/Canada which has encouraged designers and promoted the industry and the Fashion Designers Association which also promoted and encouraged Canadian design and maintained a high standard of quality.

Today, Canada has many designers whose names appear on labels at home and abroad, and all Canadians can be justly proud of their work. The following brief sketches are about just a few of these talented people.

John Warden from Niagara Falls designs for men, women and children for companies such as Molyclaire, Cordovan, Canadian Children's Wear. He believes in the total look, and clothing that "looks expensive even if it is not" (*Style* September, 1980). Warden studied in New York at Parsons School of Design and was brought back to Canada by Auckie Sanft in 1964.

Leo Chevalier designs for Brodkin Industries, Natural Furs, Van Essa plus men's wear for various firms and uniforms for Air Canada. His designs can be called elegant and classic, designed for the sophisticated woman of any age. Chevalier did his first ready-to-wear designs in 1967 and eventually phased out his couture business in 1971. He was born in Montreal and studied at Montreal's School of Art and Design. He is the first designer to be named to the order of Canada.

Margaret Godfrey came from England to Bagatelle. She designs for the contemporary woman and believes in clothes that are good quality and easy to live with. She prefers natural fibers.

Claire Haddad was one designer who worked to promote Canadian fashion in the '60s, and has been designing for Claire Haddad Ltd. since 1963. She is well known for and has won many awards for her lingerie and loungewear.

Many other designers names are well known, including Michel Robechaud, Jean-Claude Poitràs, Marielle Fleury, Lilly Dee, Elen Henderson, Hugh Garber, Lori Brooks and Pat McDonagh. Perhaps some of the following are not quite as familiar.

Linda Lundstrom, originally from Red Lake, Ontario, studied at Sheridan College in Oakville, Ontario, won a Fashion/Canada Scholarship which allowed her to obtain some experience in England and France, and had her own business at the age of 23. She designs basics, easy care and comfortable clothes for people like herself.

Mary Chong also studied at Sheridan College, and her Fashion/Canada Scholarship enabled her to attend the

(Continued on page 46)

Rose Fedorak has a B.H.Ec. and a M.Sc. from the University of Manitoba. She is an Associate Professor at the College of Home Economics, University of Saskatchewan and is chairing the Canadian Home Economics Association's Clothing and Textile Committee.

A Social Marketing Approach to Program Design and Delivery

S.A. Brown

Abstract

This paper discusses the application of marketing principles, developed primarily in the business sector, to the design and delivery of social programs. The elements that comprise a marketing approach are reviewed and a number of illustrations of social marketing are given in fields such as nutrition and health care. The design of marketing strategy is considered along with issues in program implementation, evaluation and control.

Résumé

Marketing du type et de la distribution des programmes:
une approche sociale.

Cet exposé discute l'application des principes de marketing. développés surtout dans le secteur commercial, au type et à la distribution des programmes sociaux. Les éléments compris dans une approche de marketing y sont passés en revue et un certain nombre d'illustrations du marketing social y est donné dans les domaines de l'alimentation et de la santé. Le type de stratégie de marketing y est considéré ainsi que les questions d'exécution, évaluation et contrôle des programmes.

There has been a great deal of interest in the last ten years in social marketing, that is the application of marketing principles to social issues. Numerous agencies and individuals have considered social marketing as an approach to program planning and delivery. The term social marketing was formalized by Kotler and Zaltman (1971), who described its role in achieving planned social change. This, and an earlier article (Kotler & Levy, 1969) suggesting that marketing can apply to more situations than selling tangible goods and services, has led to a growing literature defining the subject matter of social marketing (Lazer & Kelley, 1973), arguing the philosophy of such an expanded definition of marketing (Luck, 1974) and describing applications. Studies of social marketing can be found in areas as diverse as population control (Farley & Leavitt, 1971; Simon, 1974; Kar, 1977), health care (Cooper, Kehoe & Murphy, 1978), transit planning (Lovelock, 1977; Arnold, 1980), national unity (Cameron, 1980), blood donorship (Brown, 1979) and energy conservation (Gilly & Gelb, 1978; Ellison & Ellison, 1980; McDougall & Keller, 1980).

This paper is a brief, illustrative review of the steps required in the marketing of social ideas. Kotler (1975) provides a comprehensive treatment of marketing in non-profit organizations, Gaedeke (1977) and Montana (1978) present collections of articles and case studies while Bloom and Novelli (1981) and Houston and Homans (1977) add cautionary notes by outlining some of the difficulties that may confront the social marketer.

Definition

Kotler and Zaltman (1971, p.5) define social marketing as:

> the design, implementation and control of programs calculated to influence the acceptability of social ideas and involving considerations of product planning, pricing, communication, distribution and marketing research.

Program Design

Problem Recognition. The key steps in a marketing program are shown in Figure 1. Of initial importance is the identification of the central issue to be addressed and its definition in understandable and operational terms. To illustrate this, an example is drawn from the health care field where professionals are concerned about the number of people who die from heart attack before they reach a hospital. The general problem here is to reduce the mortality rate. A more specific problem could be phrased in terms of how to achieve changes in medical service delivery, such as the introduction of paramedic services. The problem can also be phrased, however, in terms of treating more victims in situ by non-medical personnel, trained in cardiopulmonary resuscitation (CPR). The problem then can be stated in marketing terms, that is to promote CPR training courses to the general public. (Wilson, 1980).

Objectives. Translating the problem to be tackled into specific and realistic objectives is the next step. Objectives should state what is to be accomplished, to what extent and over what time period. This allows a specific program to be designed and establishes benchmarks for the subsequent evaluation of the program. One problem in some social marketing programs is the establishment of unrealistic objectives and the consequent conclusion that the program is a failure. Hochbaum (1977, pp. 5-14) has emphasized this problem noting that a commercial company achieving a 5% increase in sales volume in one year in a market where its product is bought by 20% of its potential consumer population would be very satisfied. In social programs, however, this would be construed as very disappointing:

> if a health program that tried to get all women at risk of cervical cancer to have a yearly papsmear attracted only 20% or even 30 or 40% to begin with succeeded only to add another 5 or 10% to this number, the program would be regarded as a failure.

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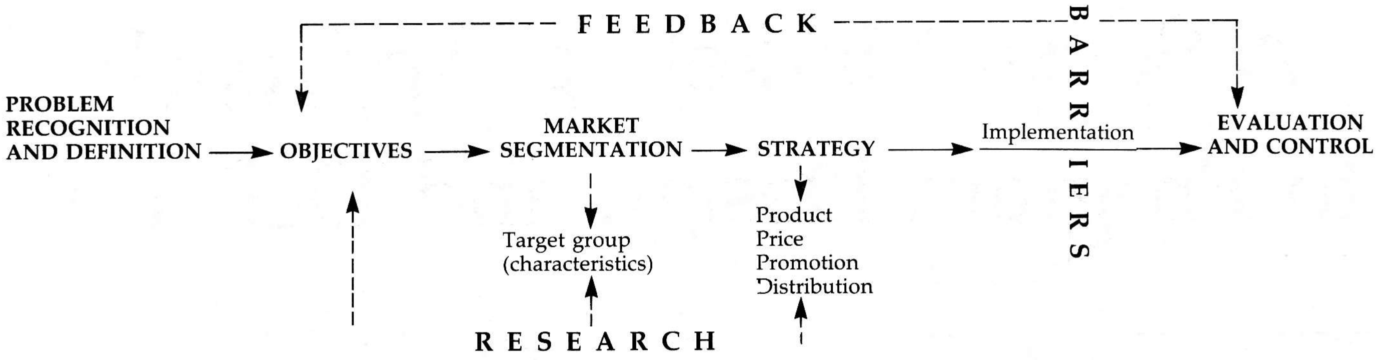

Figure 1. Steps in a Marketing Plan

Also important in setting objectives is a consideration of what aspect of human behavior is to change. Figure 2 shows a hierarchy of effects based on a model outlined by Lavidge and Steiner (1961). The implication of the model is that consumers pass through a series of stages before they reach the stage of behavior change. Some social marketing programs may encounter difficulties in trying to change overt behavior without first considering changes in awareness, attitudes or intentions. It may be more realistic to focus on the objective of improving problem awareness, particularly in the initial phases of a program and to address other behavioral objectives at a later date. On the other hand, it is important not to dwell on already apparent information. For example, most people are probably aware of the health hazards of smoking, and achieving attitude and behavior change is now more important.

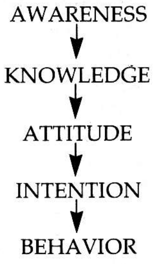

Figure 2. Hierarchy of Effects

Marketing Segmentation. Rather than treating the market as an undifferentiated mass, marketing strategies involve identifying homogeneous groups or segments within the whole. Particular segments can then be selected as targets and strategies designed with segment characteristics in mind. This may be a problem in situations where agencies do not recognize differences within their market, yet it is crucial given that program resources are frequently limited and priorities must be established. Programs designed for particular segments are likely to be more successful than those directed at a mass audience. For example, statistics for seat belt usage in British Columbia show that usage levels were lower among front seat passengers than drivers. (Charach, 1978). A program to improve usage might then focus on this segment rather than the driver segment, and further focusing might be possible based on additional information such as age and sex of drivers and passengers or weekend versus weekday use of seat belts. This illustrates the role of research in providing data useful in defining and formulating the marketing plan.

Marketing strategy. Strategy involves decisions about the four elements of the marketing mix: product, price, promotion and distribution. Fundamental to any strategy is an understanding of the nature of the exchange relationship between the marketing organization and its target audience. In business transactions the marketers offers goods and services in exchange for payment, and his strategy is designed to bring about the exchange in a way beneficial to the firm. Kotler (1975) has described how transactions in the non-profit sector can be conceptualised in terms of exchange relationships. For the target audience to accept the ideas or program being marketed, it must see the exchange as desirable and consider the **product** received of greater value than the time, effort, money and other resources expended. Assume, for example, that the problem is to persuade a target group of Canadians to eat fewer foods which are high in saturated fat. To understand the exchange relationship, it is necessary to consider what product is being offered and what price members of the target group will have to pay for it. The product may appear to be information on how to prepare and select foods to reduce fat intake, but really it is a new lifestyle which is being offered — a fitter, healthier, less risky lifestyle. The objective is to persuade consumers to accept this product, but in exchange for what? Acceptance is not without its price, even if information about good nutrition is freely available. The price to consumers may be an immediate loss of satisfaction because they are giving up something they enjoy; the time and effort involved in acquiring information and acting on it are opportunity costs. There may be direct costs of acquiring tangibles, such as increased grocery costs, as in the case of attempting to reduce alcohol consumption, where alcohol-free malt or grape beverages are typically more expensive than beer and wine. Another example may be drawn from energy conservation, where longer term savings in energy and dollars are offset by the initial capital costs of such items as solar panels, insulation or heat exchangers.

The third element of the marketing mix is promotion. Sometimes promotion is equated with marketing itself, and advertising with promotion; indeed some social change campaigns appear to focus on advertising with little attention to the other marketing mix variables. Promotion should encourage the consumer to take part in the exchange, and it may involve advertising, personal selling, publicity and incentives. Advertisements for energy conservation, moderation in alcohol consumption and other social issues are quite common. Some of these underscore the importance of targeting strategy to particular market segments. For example, in a series of print advertisements from Seagram Distillers on the theme of moderation in alcohol consumption, each advertisement portrays a different problem drinker. Different market segments can then identify with the young executive, the pregnant woman, the young mother tied to the home or the retired worker. Design of advertisements requires an understanding of segment characteristics in order to assess the appraoch that is most likely to appeal to that target audience. Personal selling can play an important role in encouraging the consumer to change, because information may be seen as more credible. Thus, in a formal way, community liaison workers, district home economists and extension specialists can be effective change agents by selling the idea, program or service to the public they deal with. In an informal way, opinion leaders in a community can play the same persuasive role in encouraging others who are less likely to change without additional reinforcement. Publicity is also a valuable tool in promotion, particularly when budgets are limited. Publicity is neither directly sponsored by nor paid for by the marketing organization, but local media coverage, often achieved through a well-timed and worded press release may give a valuable boost to the organization. Incentives, such as coupons and free samples, are common features in consumer goods marketing, and these can be used in social marketing. Bottle deposits act as incentives in encouraging consumers to return containers for reuse and recycling and government subsidies for home insulation also may encourage program participation. Other possibilities may be family swimming pool passes for participants in water safety programs or keep-fit classes.

The fourth element of the marketing mix is distribution, that is the way in which a product is transferred from producer to consumer. It involves consideration of the type of distribution system to be used and the number, size and location of distribution outlets. It is not always easy to tackle the distribution question in social marketing, largely because many products are intangible, that is, they are ideas or concepts such as a conserver lifestyle. In cases where a tangible product or service is to be provided the distribution question is clearer, for example, in the case of a city-subsidized fitness program. The objective of the program is to make a keep-fit program available to citizens but at nominal cost so that lower-income families can also participate. If the program is to achieve its objectives, it will have to be offered at a substantial number of readily accessible locations, and particularly in lower-income districts. Otherwise transportation costs are added to the course fee and the price of the total product may be too great for some potential participants. This example illustrates the need for good distribution decisions and also emphasizes the interrelationship between the elements of the marketing mix.

These then are the considerations in any marketing strategy, whether it be in the business or the non-profit sector. The definition of social marketing given earlier identified the three tasks of design, implementation and control of programs. So far, the design of the various elements of the marketing mix has been discussed along with the role played by market research. Consideration is now given to the two remaining tasks.

Program Implementation

A number of issues are important in program implementation. These include staffing, funding and timing. It should be stressed that a marketing approach can be used by existing personnel in an organization, and it does not necessarily require hiring additional staff or marketing consultants. Indeed Bloom and Novelli (1981) have suggested that the results marketers can achieve in the latter situation can be quite limited if the organization and its management do not feel comfortable with a marketing approach. Funding for programs will probably be a constraint and the marketing practitioner may be placed in a situation where she must not only design a marketing strategy for her program but also market the concept to her management, who will approve and budget for it. This emphasizes the need to be realistic in setting objectives and designing a strategy with the considerations discussed earlier in mind. The process of program planning and design can be a long one and there may be a substantial time lag between the original conception of a program and its total implementation, particularly where extensive research is needed to acquire data for market segmentation or strategy design. It should be recognized, however, that achieving social change is a long-term process and objectives should be set accordingly.

In addition to some of the potential problems outlined above, the marketer must also expect to encounter other barriers to implementation such as consumer resistance and competition from other organizations, including other social agencies competing for the consumer's time, energy and interest.

Program Evaluation and Control.

Program evaluation provides feedback which allows modification to parts of the program. It may be carried out during implementation or when the program is in place. It is at the evaluation stage that the value of setting specific objectives becomes critical, as these act as benchmarks for assessing the extent to which the program has been successful. It is not the purpose of this article to discuss possible research methodologies, but a discussion of evaluation in social marketing can be found in Bloom (1980) and Rutman (1977) provides an overview of evaluation research methods.

Conclusion.

This review provides a framework for understanding a social marketing approach to program development. While social marketing attempts to bring about social change, it is unlikely to offer immediate or absolute success. It is unlikely that everyone in a target group will be persuaded to participate in the desired exchange, and no matter what the nature of the program, not everyone will agree that it is in the public interest. Some types of change are likely to be easier to achieve than others. Increasing awareness of an issue may be achieved fairly readily, while attitude and behavior change will be more difficult to bring about. Social marketing is not without its difficulties, but with careful planning and realistic expectations it can be a valuable approach to program design and delivery. ●

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(Continued on page 46)

Book Reviews

Discovering Food. By Helen Kowtaluk. Peoria Ill.: Chas. A Bennett, Inc., 1978. p. 192, Softbound $7.00, hard bound $9.28.

The book guides the student or beginner cook through the basics in meal preparation. The first 12 chapters contain basic information: meal planning, using a recipe, basic equipment and appliances for food preparation, safety, cleanliness, conservation, and basic cooking techniques. Chapters 13 to 29 discuss all aspects of food preparation. Consumer information, a recipe, pertinent preparation skills and product standards are dealt with for each type of food in separate chapters. Questions and suggested activities at the end of each chapter provide for review of facts and application of knowledge gained.

Both standard and metric measurements are used throughout the book.

Every concept used in the book is adequately explained and well illustrated with clear drawings and black and white photographs.

Recipes provide practice in a cooking skill and detailed instruction ensures beginner success.

The material is comprehensive and in precise detail for the food preparation course in home economics as well as the beginner cook. Young marrieds would find the list of basic tools and appliances helpful in equipping their kitchen.

Reviewed by:
Vi Ann Shewchuk, B.H.Sc. B.Ed.
Toronto.

Lap Quilting. By Muriel Breckenridge, Toronto: McGraw-Hill Ryerson Limited, 1980. p. 96; $15.95 or Paperback $9.95.

Lap Quilting was written for two purposes. The author indicates "one is to provide instruction for new quilters in the art of lap quilting and the second is to introduce an alternate technique to the experienced quilter who may find this method more convenient, especially if living in small quarters."

The author describes the lap method of quilting as one which involves the use of a tapestry frame, large hoop and lap board instead of the large traditional frame. Individual blocks with batting and lining are basted to a tapestry frame for quilting. The completed blocks are later assembled.

The book includes basic information on preparing simple blocks by the patchwork or applique method before proceeding to the lap method. The following chapters provide information on a variety of projects using the lap method.

Detailed instructions, illustrations and colored photographs are included for 25 projects ranging from bags to walhangings, Christmas ornaments and the full-sized quilt. A list of materials required for each project plus many tips are useful.

The author approaches the subject in an enthusiastic and creative manner.

The novice quilter would find the step-by-step directions easy to follow for a variety of quilting projects.

Lap Quilting does provide an alternate method of quilting for all quilters.

Reviewed by:
Bertha Eggertson, B.Sc. (H.Ec.), B.Ed.
Clothing and Textiles Specialist
Alberta Agriculture

Vegetable Gardening. By Anstace Esmonde-White. Toronto: McGraw-Hill Ryerson, 1981. p. 192; $12.95

Vegetable Gardening is a book that offers common sense advice on the growing of a vegetable garden in cold climates. By the use of excellent pictures, illustrations, charts and, written in a very readable style, it takes the reader through the selection, organization, planning, gardening and storage procedures of a number of vegetables, herbs, and fruits.

It is an ideal guide for the amateur gardener. As one reads the book, the reader becomes a personal friend of Anstace Esmonde-White and is encouraged to try his or her hand at growing vegetables that perhaps one has never grown before.

The book is quite limited in information on disease and insect control and on canning, freezing and storage information. The author encourages the reader to obtain up-to-date information from government publications.

The book itself is informative and well-written. It would be of interest to anyone who is interested in gardening.

Reviewed by:
Edith R. Zawadiuk, B.Sc.
Regional Home Economist
Two Hills, Alberta.

Babyshock A Mother's First Five Years. By John Cobb. London: Hutchinson and Co. (Publishers) Ltd., 1980. p. 255; $15.95. Distributed by Nelson, Foster and Scott.

The recommendations made in the CHEA position paper "Adolescent Pregnancies" provide a real challange to all members of our association. How prepared are we, as professionals, and even as mothers ourselves to help prepare young Canadians for parenthood?

Babyshock is a book which recognizes the impact of the change occurring in a person's life when they become a parent. The author's purpose in writing the book is to provide new parents with a guide to help them anticipate the upheavals caused by the new arrival and to show that there is "life after birth".

John Cobb is a pyschiatrist whose special interest in the difficulties faced by new mothers stemmed from the birth of his own children and from problems discussed by patients in his practice. His book covers stages of preparation and planning for the birth, childbirth, physical and emotional problems of the early months, the importance of satisfying personal needs for the sake of the child's healthy development and adjustment to changing roles.

The author clearly states that the book is not intended to be a guide to pregnancy or childbirth nor a childcare manual. It is intended to inform rather than instruct and to provide possible alternatives with the goal of providing the confidence which results from being an informed parent. The book has been designed to be referred to in times of need. The subtitles within each chapter are often in the form of questions and the delightful cartoons are easy to identify with. A few of the many practical topics covered are; pros and cons of the one child family, adapting clothes in your wardrobe for maternity wear, post-natal exercises, money and the cost of a baby, guide to bought and improvised toys.

This book is a valuable resource for all parents. For anyone involved with adolescents in pre- and post-natal parenthood courses it would be an excellent guide.

Reviewed by:
Laurie A. King, B.A.Sc., B.Ed.
Teacher (and Mother, in third year of Babyshock). Ontario

Nutrition in the Park; A Nutrition Education Manual for Leaders. By Young Canada Works Project. London: London Board of Education, 1980. p. 257; $10.00

Nutrition in the Park is a manual packed with ideas for teaching nutrition to children. It was developed as part of a nutrition program, which took place in London, Ontario.

There are six sections, each offering a variety of activities categorized as games, arts and crafts, drama and music. Each section has a theme and objectives. "Food Fun" offers an introduction to the functions of food. "Snacking Cents" provides activities to teach children nutritional and economic value of snacks. "Be a Smart Cookie" relates to dental health. "Battle of the Bulge", "Ethnic Food Festival" and "What's for Lunch" are the other three themes.

Clear instructions are given for setting up activities. Most are suggested for 6 - 12 year olds. The majority would appear useful for any nutrition education program. A few activities did not seem appropriate for the objectives of the section. In several cases, the value of learning is dependent on the leader's ability to guide discussion and give sound nutritional information.

Each section provides a lengthy list of other available resources such as films, pamphlets and posters These are coded as to audience suitability.

This manual would be a useful resource for the professional responsible for providing nutrition education to children.

Reviewed by:
Betty Grudnizki, B.Sc. in Home Economics
District Home Economist
Camrose, Alberta.

The Family Health Cookbook. By Alice White and the Society for Nutrition Education. New York: David McKay Company, Inc., 1980, p. 284; $12.95 (U.S.)

The arrival of a new cookbook among the more than 30,000 already in print will understandably raise skepticism as to its uniqueness and possible contribution. However, *The Family Health Cookbook* has indeed accomplished this difficult task of offering "something new." Far more than a simple grouping of recipes, this book translates basic nutrition science into practical cooking techniques.

The book is divided into two parts. In Part I, a relatively brief section, the authors present basic facts about nutrition in a very readable question-and-answer format. The US Dietary Goals are discussed in detail, and the rationale for cutting down on fat, refined sugar, cholesterol and alcohol is clearly explained.

A short section on special needs focuses on dietary recommendations during infancy, childhood and adolescence, as well as pregnancy and lactation.

Part II contains the recipes, which are all economical and apply the nutrition principles discussed in Part I. Along with the yield for each recipe, values per serving are given for calories, protein, fat and sodium. The description of ingredients is clear and detailed, as are the directions for the preparation techniques.

In addition to the usual "time and temperature charts," the book is filled with tables such as cholesterol and sodium content of common foods, best sources of important nutrients, and the US Recommended Dietary Allowances. All recipes are in customary units, but a metric conversion chart is included as well. The table of contents is clear and concise, and the index is well-detailed.

Although the Recommended Dietary Allowances and Dietary Goals were designed for Americans, the general principles apply to Canadians as well. However, the section on food labelling is not applicable in this country, and may therefore cause confusion for the Canadian reader.

This well-written and well-organized cookbook clearly stands ahead of its fierce competition. It is highly recommended to **all** cooks who are not only interested in pleasing the palate, but in applying the most up-to-date nutrition knowledge in their menus as well.

Reviewed by:
Joni Shrier, B.Sc., P.Dt.
Montreal.

Introduction to Fashion Illustrating. Ann Stephenson. New York: Fairchild Publications, 1981, p. 131; $14.50.

Written as a "how-to" manual, this book is geared toward students and professionals who seek careers in department store advertising or in fashion design. The manual is designed to give step-by-step instructions for producing fashion sketches and illustrations. The text would be highly suitable for fashion design courses in which students learn to prepare professional portfolios.

The text is divided into seven chapters, providing instructions for drawing the female, girl, male, and boy models. Drawing instructions are given for clothes, shoes, handbags, hats, scarves, cosmetics, and jewelry. Distinctions are made for drawing hard sell and high fashion illustrations. Instructions are also given for using various media including ink with pens and brushes, washes, and painting in ink and washes. The text also includes information about preparing reference files, professional portfolios, and resumes.

This book is valuable to students in fashion design and fashion merchandising. The information included in this book may equip students with skills needed to prepare fashion illustrations, professional portfolios, and fashion advertisements. It is particularly valuable for those who intend to draw for newspapers and magazines.

Fashion Illustrating may be easily used by students who have prior knowledge of line, paints, inks, textured papers, and other media. The majority of the book is based on the student's skill in using the media covered in the text. The book is excellent for college level students who have had prior art or drawing experience.

Reviewed by:
Phyllis R. Spruiell, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor,
North Texas State University, Denton.

Home Planning and Design (Third edition). By Jean Clements and Helga Lambrecht. Whitby, Ontario, L1N 3A3: Lyndeview Publications Limited, 1981. p. 356; $13.95.

How heartening it is to discover a book like *Home Planning and Design* that is not only Canadian in content but also metric! This book includes up-to-date, systematic information on housing and interior design which is helpful when making the decision to purchase, build or rent housing accommodation and when furnishing liveable interiors. The process of problem solving, as it relates to decision making in the management of resources, is encouraged in that "Learning Activities" are included at the end of each chapter. The inclusion of "References" at the end of each chapter will assist the reader in finding additional resource material. Several new chapters have been added to this edition providing information on design basics, remodelling and the development of a plan when furnishing. Meaningful diagrams, graphs, charts and pictures help to support the scope of choice available to the Canadian consumer.

Unfortunately, a minor disadvantage of the book is that information on housing mortgages only extends to interest rates of 15%, which are not in keeping with present market realities. This drawback is certainly understandable in light of the escalation of interest rates which has occurred within the current year and keeping in mind how long it takes a book to go to print.

In my opinion, the book *Home Planning and Design* would be an excellent text for senior level courses and interior design in the secondary school system. Also, the book would be a useful reference for a home library. ●

Reviewed by:
Doris E. Hasell, BID (Man.), IDS, IDC
Associate Professor of Home Economics
University of Saskatchewan

If you are interested in preparing a book review, please contact the **Book Review Editor,** stating your area of interest. A complimentary book which may be kept will be sent to you for review.

Social Marketing

(Continued from page 43)

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Fashionmakers

(Continued from page 40)

Fashion Institute of Technology in New York. Mary designs simple, good quality garments for her own firm, owned jointly with her husband, Warren Tom.

Debbie Shuchat is another young designer who has her own firm in Toronto.

Alfred Sung designs for Ms. Originals and has been described by *Maclean's Magazine* as being "at the vanguard of a new crop of talented and aggressive Canadians". (Hurowitz, 1981).

Simon Chang has recently left International Typhoon and now designs for Cinnabar, a subsidiary of Brodkin. His designs include sportswear, blouses, dresses and sweaters.

And the list goes on. Other names that appear on labels include Peter Skibinksy, Francois Guenet, Wayne Clark, Gabriel Levy, Nicola Pelly, Colin Watson, Bernard McGee and Shelly Wickabrad, Sybil Casey, Tom d'Auria, Donald Richer, Christopher Ryan, Stanley Sklar, Edwin Birch, Diane Deckel, Kristie Latti and Deborah Kuchme. Designer fashions are available in a broad price range with an appeal to almost every segment of the population.

The designers are also becoming known internationally, indicating to the world that Canadian fashion is more than the Eskimo parka and Hudson Bay blanket. We can justly be proud of our designers who have made it inspite of being overshadowed for years by big European and American names. The years of struggle, for these people, has certainly paid off. ●

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The deadline for submission
of articles or items
for the next *CHE Journal*
is *January 15, 1982.*

Abstracts of Current Literature

Submitted by
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Université de Moncton
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Nord-sud: un programme de survie. Rapport de la commission indépendante sur les problèmes de développement international.

W. Brandt
1980
Editions Gallimard, Paris, 535 pages

Le rapport Brandt fait le bilan du développement des années 70. Cet ouvrage volumineux résulte du travail d'une commission présidée par Willy Brandt et composée de dix-sept personnalités de pays différents. Tout y passe: pauvreté, faim, maladies et santé, industrialisation, pétrole, transferts de technologie, agriculture, démographie, désarmement, commerce de produits de base, réforme du système monétaire international, multinationales, investissements, organisations internationales.

Chaque thème est traité d'une façon claire et présente l'essentiel de l'information ainsi qu'un certain nombre de recommandations pour les années 1980-90. Celles-ci sont données aux pages 478 à 487. Elles tournent autour de la satisfaction des besoins prioritaires des plus pauvres et de moyens nobles d'enrayer la faim dans le monde. On recommande que le rédéploiement industriel se fasse au bénéfice du Sud, que le système monétaire soit réformé dans un sens plus mondial, que l'on cherche de nouvelles approches pour assurer le financement du développement.

En résumé l'ouvrage donne quelques perspectives pour de nouveaux rapports Nord-Sud où les besoins fondamentaux et les droits essentiels de la personne humaine serviraient de critère de discernement et d'innovation.

Marielle Préfontaine

Pronatalism in high school family studies texts

L.A. Patterson and J. Defrain
1981
Family Relations, 14, 211-217

Dans cette étude, les auteurs tentent de vérifier jusqu'à quel point les auteurs des manuels scolaires dans le domaine de l'organisation et vie familiale encouragent de façon implicite ou explicite la reproduction et le rôle parental.

Vingt-neuf manuels scolaires dont la publication detait de 1969 ou plus tard on fait l'objet de l'étude. Ces volumes, choisis dans les domaines des relations familiales, du développement de l'enfant et de l'organisation familiale, étaient ceux distribués dans les écoles secondaires des villes de Lincoln et Omaha dans l'état du Nebraska. Toutefois, selon les auteurs de l'étude, ces volumes étaient représentatifs de ceux distribués dans les écoles secondaires à travers les Etats-Unis.

Certains chapitres des livres étaient étudiés soit ceux traitant du mariage, de la famille, de la planification familiale, des enfants, etc . . . Pour mesurer les biais "pronatalism" et non-pronatalism les critères suivants ont suivi de guide: définition de la famille avec ou sans enfant; les sens des discussions touchant les familles sans enfant; la description positive seulement du rôle parental ou en y ajoutant les aspects problématiques; l'attribution du rôle du soin de l'enfant à la mére ou aux deux parents, etc . . .

Les résultats ont démontré que près de un tiers des manuels étudiés présentaient une image biaisée de la reproduction et du rôle parental.

Puisqu'au Canada, une bonne partie de nos manuels scolaires sont d'origine américaine, il serait important que les éducateurs en organisation et vie familiale analysent sérieusement leurs volumes de classe afin de vérifier si ceux-ci offrent un choix aux élèves quant aux rôles qu'ils pourraient assumer dans leur vie d'adulte. Certains sont de l'avis qu'en mettant entre les mains des élèves des manuels ayant un biais "pronatalism" c'est de limiter la liberté de choix de l'étudiant vis-à-vis son rôle dans la société.

Colette Martin

Young children's perceptions of old people

Donna G. Chitwood and Jerry J. Bigner
1980
Home Economics Research Journal, 8:369-374

Un des problèmes de la gérontologie sociale est la perception de soi qu'ont les personnes âgrées. Il serait important de savoir comment ces perceptions sont formées ou acquises, à quel moment elles apparaissent et quel est leur effet sur le comportement.

Les auteurs ont choisi d'examiner ce problème en utilisant le concept de la perception des autres (person perception): le processus qu'un individu développe pour connaître l'autre — ses caractéristiques, ses qualités, ses états d'âme — le tout facilité par des catégories, des stéréotypes et des relations interpersonnelles.

Quelques études démontrent que les attitudes négatives à l'égard de la vieillesse débutent tôt dans la vie et s'intensifient avec la progression de l'âge. Certaines recherches ont déjà étudié les attitudes des adolescents et des adultes vis-à-vis le vieillissement. Ce travail tente de définir la nature des perceptions des très jeunes enfants et de confirmer ce que des enquêtes ont démontré, soit, les jeunes enfants peuvent faire la distinction entre les divers groupes d'âge et leur attitude vis-à-vis le vieillissement est négative.

On a choisi pour l'expérience des enfants d'âge préscolaire, âgés de trois à cinq ans, d'origine caucasienne et de niveaux socioéconomiques moyens. Le test consistait à faire la distinction entre trois groupes d'âge: jeune, âge mûr, vieux représentés graphiquement et à qualifier chacun de ces groupes par un adjectif positif au négatif. Un questionnaire adressé aux parents a permis d'estimer le temps que les enfants passaient auprès des personnes âgées. Ce paramètre ressort de l'hypothèse qui veut que la perception soit en fonction de la durée et de la qualité des relations interpersonnelles.

Presque tous les enfants ont correctement identifié les personnes âgées indiquant ainsi que déjà un enfant de trois ans peut concevoir ce qui est "vieux".

La plupart des adjectifs négatifs ont été appliqués aux représentations des personnes âgées. Les enfants peuvent donc évaluer leurs observations et en ce cas cette évaluation est en grande partie négative.

Il y avait une relation importante entre le temps passé auprès des vieillards et le nombre d'adjectifs positifs utilisés pour décrire la vieillesse. Plus un enfant avait eu de relations interpersonnelles avec des individus âgé plus il entrevoyait ces personnes positivement. Dans ce travail, les personnes âgées avec qui l'enfant avait interagi le plus souvent étaient soit un gardien, soit un voisin mais non un membre de la famille. De même, une interaction limitée avec les personnes âgées était associée aux perceptions négatives.

Ces résultats soulignent l'impact de l'environnement social sur la famille nucléaire et son rôle dans la formation des impressions des enfants. L'isolement de la famille limite les contacts entre les jeunes enfants et les vieilles personnes conduisant ainsi à une perception négative de la vieillesse.

Afin de faciliter l'interaction entre générations et de minimiser les perceptions négatives résultant de l'isolement, les auteurs suggèrent d'utiliser les garderies de jour et les maternelles comme modes d'intervention. Il serait possible d'utiliser ces centres pour réunir plusieurs groupes d'âge. Une autre alternative de rapprochement serait d'employer les personnes âgées à titre de volontaires ou de salariés dans les programmes préscolaires.

Andrée Bourque

Sanitation of low temperature home laundry

C. Janecek, L. Manikowske and M. Bromel
1980
Household & Personal Products Industry, November, 52-56; 93.

L'utilisation de l'eau froide pour le lavage des produits textiles contribue sûrement à économiser de l'énergie. Toutefois un problème se pose, celui de l'hygiène. Plusieurs chercheurs examinent les conséquences de l'emploi de l'eau froide sur la quantité de microbes non détruits par le lavage ou le séchage.

Trois auteurs ont vérifié l'effet de l'emploi de deux températures d'eau différentes (18°C et 41°C) sur la résistance d'un microbe au lavage. Ils ont aussi analysé l'effet de d'autres facteurs tels que: le type de détersifs (2); la concentration des détersifs (3); l'utilisation de désinfectants (2); le type de tissus (2) et la température de séchage (27 °C et 71°C).

Il ressort de cette étude que les tissus peuvent véhiculer des microorganismes pathogènes ce qui est plus fréquent lorsque les appareils sont utilisés par plusieurs groupes de personnes.

Les auteurs concluent leur étude en invitant les consommateurs, qui emploient des températures d'eau peu élevées pour le lavage, à ajouter dans l'eau de lavage ou de rinçage une quantité modérée d'un désinfectant. En effet, quel que soit le type de détersifs ou de tissus employés, quelle que soit la température d'eau de lavage ou du séchage et la concentration des détersifs utilisées lors de cette étude les microbes ne sont pas détruits à 100%. Les chercheurs rappellent finalement le danger de nous fier sur la chaleur de la sécheuse automatique pour détruire certains microbes qui résistent à de hautes chaleurs.

Les résultats obtenus de cette recherche nous invitent à réfléchir nous, qui très souvent, ne pouvons obtenir une température d'eau froide plus élevée que 4°C et cela non seulement durant les mois d'hiver.

Conserver l'énergie est important mais encore faut-il mesurer les risques que nous prenons.

Georgette Durand

Preschool children's consumer learning

George P. Moschis, Joseph T. Lawton, and Ronald W. Stampfl
1980
Home Economics Research Journal, 9:64-71

La consommation représente actuellement une priorité dans les sociétés industrialisées. Les corporations, la fonction publique, les éducateurs, les sociologues et les psychologues en sont de plus en plus concernés.

Puisque d'importants problèmes sociaux sont reliés à la consommation et puisque l'enfant est le cible d'annonces où le discernement pour lui n'est pas facile, il a été suggéré qu'une politique soit formulée afin de:

1) protéger l'enfant contre les messages persuasifs
2) préparer l'enfant à une interaction plus efficace sur le marché.

Quelques chercheurs ont suggéré que ces efforts soient dirigés à l'enfant pendant le stage de développement cognitif. Cette étape exclut les enfants d'âge préscolaire qui selon la théorie de Piaget sont à l'étape de développement préopérationnel. L'implication qui en découle est qu'à ce niveau l'enfant ne peut manipuler ni concepts ni propositions.

Récemment des programmes basés sur la théorie d'Ausubel ont démontré qu'il est possible de faciliter l'apprentissage conceptuel à l'âge préscolaire et d'assurer un apprentissage significatif et séquentiel.

En utilisant deux programmes d'instruction, l'un basé sur la théorie de Piaget, l'autre sur la théorie d'Ausubel, les auteurs de cette recherche examinent lequel des deux programmes est le plus efficace à transmettre.

1) des concepts scientifiques de la consommation
2) l'habileté à formuler des décisions face à un achat.

Vingt-six enfants, comparables en âge et en vocabulaire ont été enrôlés pendant dix jours soit dans le programme de Piaget (P), soit dans celui d'Ausubel (A).

Les enfants du groupe (P) participaient à une série de jeux sociodramatiques. Les enfants du groupe (A) recevaient une série de leçons organisées suivies d'activités. Le thème central dans les deux programmes touchait la négociation et la transaction. Dans le groupe (P) l'enfant est le centre des activités mais il assume une interaction importante avec l'instructeur. Dans le groupe (A) l'action réside principale-

(Continued on page 50)

New Publications and Visuals

Consumer Education

Teachers involved in consumer education may be interested in a recent article in the *Journal of Business Education. Message to Business Educators: The Consumer Education Ship Sailed and You Missed the Boat* by E. Thomas Garmam is an interesting discussion of who is teaching consumer education and who could be teaching it. The author contends that business education teachers did not move in when the opportunity was there to add more consumer education in their area, and the home economics teachers did. **See** the February 1981 *Journal of Business Education* for this article.

American Council on Consumer Interests

Are you familiar with this professional organization for consumer educators? The ACCI serves professionals by: ● disseminating scholarly research findings ● stimulating effective career competencies, consumer education and research ● promoting a forum for idea sharing by consumer affairs and educational professionals ● publishing career opportunity openings ● announcing news of other consumer-oriented organizations ● reviewing consumer resource materials ● hosting an annual conference ● organizing member's areas of expertise for resource requests

For further details, and membership information **write to:** *American Council on Consumer Interests, 162 Stanley Hall, University of Missouri, Columbia, MO 65211.*

Forum

Some excellent consumer education materials are available from J.C. Penney. *FORUM* Magazine is one of an integrated series of eight successive monthly publications planned for use by educators in teaching a micro/macro approach to consumer education. The total system includes: *FORUM* Magazine (September): *FORUM* Insights (October): *FORUM* Newsletters 1 and 2 (November and December): *FORUM* Magazine — Spring issue - (January): *FORUM* Insights (February): *FORUM* Newletters 3 and 4 (March and April). Subscription to this *FORUM* series is $18 per year. Orders received at any point in the September-April cycle will receive all publications in the September to April series for that year.

To order: mail a check for $18 made payable to: *JC Penney Consumer Education Services, P.O. Box 2811, New York, NY 10001. Attention: Satenig St. Marie.*

Interfacing

Interfacing has always been one of the unsung heroes of fashion — and one of the least understood! But now, *Indispensable Interfacing*, a new four-page leaflet, clears away all the confusion. Everything students need to know about interfacing — what it is and where it's used, what types are available, how to choose and use it — is explained and illustrated. The leaflet covers both sew-in and fusible interfacing and includes a handy selection chart for today's popular fabrics. The leaflet costs 30¢ each, or 25 for $2.80 and may be **ordered from:** *Dominion Simplicity Patterns, Ltd. 120 Mack Avenue, Scarborough, Ontario M1L 1N3.*

Food Services Films

National Educational Media, Inc. (NEM), the world's leading producer/distributor of audio/visual training programs for the food service industry, has developed a new training program covering the proper methods for preparing a variety of soups.

Soup Preparation, a complete course module, consists of a 15-minute color/sound motion picture and coordinated printed study materials with valuable recipes. This program points out the fundamental principles and steps for preparing both thin soups, and thick soups, including creams and purees. Techniques for protecting a soup's nutritional value while maximizing flavor and economy are covered. Also the importance of careful garnishing is stressed with importance given to freshness and eye-appeal.

Close-up photography is used to highlight each step of soup preparation, saving trainers and supervisors considerable time while providing them with a complete easy-to-understand picture of essential procedures for every learner.

The program is available in motion picture, filmstrip, and slide/audiocassette formats, along with coordinated printed Study Material Kits, including Tests, Leader's Guide and Lesson Plan. For further information **contact:** *National Educational Media, Inc., 21601 Devonshire Street, Chatsworth, California 91311 U.S.A.*

Directory of Canadian Human Services 1982

The Canadian Council on Social Development will publish a completely revised and greatly expanded edition of the Directory of Canadian Human Services in March 1982. It will be a powerful reference tool listing over 25,000 agencies, services, voluntary organizations, academic and research institutes, government departments, etc. Included will be phone numbers, addresses, services information and basic descriptive data.

A pre-publication price of $25.00 per copy is being offered until March 1982 after which it will cost approximately $35.00. (7% sales tax for Ontario residents). Order from: The Canadian Council on Social Development, 55 Parkdale Ave., Ottawa, Ontario K1Y 4G1.

Kitchen and Laundry Publications

The Maytag Company has an extensive consumer Education Department that prepares numerous publications, films and slide sets. Their newest publication is entitled *Kitchen and Laundry Designs for the 80's*. It is a 16 page booklet that provides floor plans and ideas on selection and use of home appliances to maximize energy conservation in the home.

To help explain the energy and time-saving ideas contained in the book, four contemporary kitchen and laundry designs were created using different types of housing: a condominium in the city, a tract home in the suburbs, a large two-storey home in a small town, and a new, smaller home where a couple nearing retirement plan to live. The book offers suggestions that can help each of the four families and all consumers make the right decisions in designing and equipping new kitchens and laundries. (Single copy no-charge, additional copies 19¢ each, Form 199 YG).

A number of technical bulletins are also available from Maytag. Technical Bulletin 15 — *Soak Cycles Save Energy* outlines how using a cold soak prior to a warm wash provides the same results as a hot water wash. Reasonable quantities of this bulletin are available at no charge.

Requests for these publications, as well as a complete list of Educational Aids **should be sent to:** *Mr. Peter Charne, Maytag Company, Ltd. 270 Belfield Road, Rexdale, Ontario M9W 1H7.*

Safe Food Handling

Two out of three home cooks are careless in the way they handle food in the kitchen. This means that a good share of the population stands a chance of getting food-related illness like staphylococcus poisoning, according to a survey conducted by the Economic Research Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture. Half of the survey participants were not aware of good food handling practices and were using unsafe procedures regularly. 13% were aware of safe food practices but ignored them. Only 9% both knew how to handle food safely and put in practice what they knew.

Some of the more common potentially-serious procedures were:

- Cutting fresh meat and then vegetables without washing the knife or cutting board in between each task.
- Stuffing and partially roasting a turkey one day, and finishing roasting it the next day.
- Leaving chicken, egg or tuna salad sandwiches at room temperature for more than two hours.

A new booklet on food safety in the home, prepared with the help of microbiologists at The Pillsbury Company, gives tips on safe food handling from the time of purchasing food in the store to clean-up times. A chart describes the kinds of foodborne illnesses, the symptoms and the foods often involved. Four basic rules that will prevent most problems are highlighted. **Single copies are available by writing** *Food Safety In The Home, The Pillsbury Company, Box 60-090, Dept. 421, Minneapolis, MN 55460.*

A companion fact sheet on *"Preventing or Eliminating Insects in Grain Based Foods"* also is available from the same address.

Up With Nutrition

A snakes and ladders game that provides an educational experience for children ages 6 - 12 is now available from the Home Economics Council of the Alberta Teachers Association. The game includes a full color game sheet, 18½ × 22 inches, instructions for three game variations, and game prices. Costs for one to four copies are $5.95 each; a class set of five copies is $25.75. Add postage of $.75 for one copy, $1.50 for two or three copies and $2.50 for four or five copies. **Cheques should be** payable to the Home Economics Council, ATA and **sent to:** *Alberta Teachers Association, 11010 - 142 Street, Edmonton, Alberta T5N 2R1.*

Nutrition Education Kits

The Ontario Milk Marketing Board (OMMB) currently produces Nutrition Education kits for professional educators. The materials are available free after attendance at a workshop. These or similar materials are developed by nutritionists and are available across Canada through the various provincial organizations. For further information **contact** *Nutrition Education Co-ordinator, The Ontario Milk Marketing Board, 50 Maitland Street, Toronto, Ontario M4Y 1C7 (telephone 416-920-2700).*

Pork and Nutrition Booklet

A booklet designed to present up-to-date nutrition information about pork and pork products is available free of charge to nutrition advisors, dietitians and menu planners. To obtain a copy of *Pork & Nutrition,* **write to** the: *Canadian Pork Council, 111 Sparks Street, Ottawa, Ontario K1P 5B5.*

THE LINK is a quarterly newsletter published for home economists of countries participating in the International Family Planning Project of the American Home Economics Association, 2010 Massachusetts Avenue NW, Washington, D.C. 20036. The Link is published under a grant from the Population Office of the U.S. Agency for International Development, which is not responsible for its contents. If you wish to be placed on the mailing list to receive *The Link,* write to the above address.

The purpose of this newsletter is to share news, experiences, and opinions among home economists engaged in population education/family planning work. Written contributions are welcomed.

Appliance Information

MACAP Handbook for the Informed Consumer is a comprehensive consumer reference on the purchase and proper use, care and maintenance of major appliances. **Write to:** *MACAP Publications, 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago, Il. 60606.* Price is 50¢ a copy. ●

Abstracts

(Continued from page 48)

ment dans l'instructeur qui dispense les leçons et guide les activités.

Aux épreuves de contrôle (2) suivant leur programme, les enfants du programme d'Ausubel ont obtenu de meilleurs résultats que les enfants du programme de Piaget.

Il semble donc que la performance de l'enfant (A) soit facilitée par la série de leçons qui l'initient aux habiletés requises au consommateur. Par contre, les piagétiens peuvent soutenir que certains facteurs dans son développement pourraient permettre à l'enfant d'âge prescholaire d'évoluer vers une compréhension des concepts impliqués dans la consommation.

Il reste que les enfants d'âge préscolaire sont exposés à un volume considérable de propagande qui leur est addressée. Il serait avantageux d'établir le plus tôt possible les bases d'une consommation éclairée. Cette recherche semble en indiquer la possibilité.

Afin de permettre des conclusions plus fondées, les auteurs suggèrent qu'à l'avenir le problème soit étudié avec un plus grand échantillon en utilisant d'autres paramètres tels que attitudes et motivation du consommateur. Ils proposent aussi la nécissité d'une étude à long terme avant de se prononcer en faveur d'un programme basé soit sur la théorie de Piaget soit sur celle d'Ausubel.

Andrée Bourque

What's New

New Developments In Nylon Carpeting

Choosing carpet that will endure many years of use with a minimum of care is a concern of many consumers.

Anso IV produced by Allied Chemical and *Antron Plus* produced by Dupont may solve a lot of consumer problems. These two carpets offer soil, stain, static and wear protection.

Anso IV and Antron Plus are chemically altered to resist soiling and staining. The properties are built in as a result of an optimum combination of cross section, denier per filament, surface hardness, delustrant and surface energy.

They are supposed to resist spills and soiling better than any other nylon carpet. They come in an extensive array of colors and textures. This improved performance fibre allows consumers to decorate in daring pale shades.

While these carpets do not claim to be stain proof, most stains given quick attention can be eliminated or minimized. The low surface energy of the carpet allows less liquid to be absorbed. This is the key to soil and stain repellency.

Soil protection is built into the fibre so that each fibre is totally and uniformly protected. Most other carpet protectors and soil guard treatments are topically applied with liquid sprays onto finished carpets. Uniform coverage can be difficult due to carpet density and spray nozzles missing sections of carpet. Topical sprays gradually decrease in effectiveness with successive cleanings. Anso IV and Antron Plus remain effective in soil and stain resistance due to built in qualities.

Source: Alberta Agriculture Clothing and Textile Specialists

Chlorofibres

The definition and labelling of chlorofibres is somewhat more complicated and confusing than most other fiber contents. In accordance with the Canadian Textile Labelling and Advertising Regulations, Part III, chlorofibres may be labelled as *chlorofibre, saran, polyvinyl chloride or vinyon.* Although modacrylic is not a chlorofibre, the properties of modacrylic and chlorofibre fabrics are very similar. Some of the trade names you should watch for are: Rhovyl, Thermovyl, Leavil, Fibravyl, Verel, Dynel, and Teklan.

Polyvinyl chloride fabrics and modacrylics are increasingly popular choices for draperies. Both fabrics are inherently flame resistant and will not support combustion when a direct flame is withdrawn. This helps to make these fabrics a popular choice for drapery fabrics in hospitals and public buildings where flaming properties are of special concern. These fibres are also very resistant to sunlight and chemical deterioration which further supports their use in drapery fabrics.

Chlorofibres have been used in apparel manufacture, but their popularity in garments appears to be declining.

The main drawback to chlorofibre and modacrylic fabrics is their extreme heat sensitivity — they will not withstand the temperatures of routine drycleaning and finishing. Some polyvinyl chloride fibres are sensitive to perchloroethylene, and we recommend cleaning in petroleum or fluorinated solvents for safety.

These fabrics look very much like acrylic, and since their use is mainly in draperies (which are not required to have a permanent label if they are custom-made) a cleaner must be very alert to avoid damaging them.

Drycleaning

- Use petroleum or fluorinated solvents.
- Hang to dry or tumble on a very short cycle (10 minutes) at a temperature under 120°F (50°C).

It is important to remove the draperies from the drier as soon as the cycle is finished to prevent wrinkles setting in. Wrinkles will be very difficult to remove without damaging the drapery as the extreme heat sensitivity of the fibres means pressing should be avoided and steam should not be used.

Washing

Chlorofibre fabrics can usually be safely washed, however one must check that all components of the drapery are washable (i.e. headings).

- Washing in 100°F (40°C) water or cooler.
- Extract lightly to avoid setting in creases.
- Hang to dry or tumble dry at 120°F (see drycleaning).
- Avoid pressing and do not use steam.

Source: Textile Analysis Service, University of Alberta.

Product News

Free n'Soft

Free n'Soft is a new fabric softener for automatic clothes dryers that is proving to be satisfactory. It attaches easily to the inside of the clothes dryer to automatically eliminate static and soften clothes. One packet lasts an average of 40 dryer loads under normal drying conditions. Extensive directions for use as well as safety precautions are included with this product.

Water Filters

Health and Welfare Canada is considering banning "point-of-use" household water treatment devices because their carbon or charcoal filters promote bacteria growth. The devices include small, inexpensive units that can be screwed on to a single faucet or larger units intended to purify more than one faucet at a time. A report by the health department concluded that bacteria harmful to humans readily grow on filters that have been in use for several days or more. The devices have been sold to improve the taste and appearance of water that already has been treated by municipal treatment plants, but the department said some of the devices are being used on untreated water.

Ranges

The Magnawave magnetic induction range probably will be available in Canada this year. This appliance cooks food on a completely cool surface by magnetic induction. It consumes energy only when a ferrous metal pot is placed on the cooking area. Under the range's cooking surface is a magentic induction coil which produces sonic waves that are magnetically drawn to the metal cooking utensil on top of it. The resulting friction heats the pot without heating the cooking surface, and because there are no gas or electric elements to heat, less energy is required. A touch-lock indicator must be unlocked to activate the magnetic cooking coil, or to increase the amount of heat on each cooking area. A drawback to magnetic induction ranges is that only ferrous metal cookware, such as stainless steel, cast iron and ceramic-coated steel, can activate the magnetic coil.

Microwave News

Plastic Containers

Health and Welfare Canada reports that plastic containers made with polyvinyl chloride (PVC), polystyrene or melamine resins, as well as many other materials, generally are unsuitable for food application involving heat. Heating foods in these plastics may cause leaching of poisonous materials into the food at temperatures as low as 60°C. Because it is difficult to determine the composition of the plastic from its appearance, it is recommended that plastic containers or wraps not be used in a microwave oven unless the manufacturer says the product is suitable for use in microwave ovens or at high temperatures. Margarine containers, those from take-out food outlets, dairy products containers, etc. should not be used unless the manufacturer recommends its use in the microwave oven.

Kitchen Magnets

Many people have one or more magnetic holders on their refrigerator to hold notes or messages. These magnets are fine on the refrigerator but some people have been putting them on their microwave ovens. Though the magnets will not affect microwave energy, they can affect the sensitive solid circuitry. It is therefore advised not to use magnets on touch control ovens.

Energuide News

You can save $40 a year by using the front loader clothes washer, according to the recently published *Energuide* directory.

The new directory lists 21 brand names representing 182 models on the market. It gives the tub capacity and the type and number of wash/rinse cycles available and lists the energy consumption per month of each unit. The directory shows that the most efficient clothes washers are generally the front loaders which use much less hot water, and that between the most efficient and least efficient unit, there is a saving in energy use evaluated at more than $40 a year (at current rates and based on average use).

For dishwashers, the directory lists 21 brands representing 159 models. It shows the drying cycles, the litres of hot water used and the monthly energy consumption based on average use. The difference between the most efficient and least efficient units represents a saving of more than $30 a year in energy consumption (at current rates and based on average use).

Called the "1981 Energuide Directory of Clothes Washers and Dishwashers," the directory shows in detail, how much energy in kilowatt-hours different models can be expected to use during a one-month period under normal use conditions as assessed by CSA. The directory also lists the names and addresses of manufacturers and/or retailers where such appliances are sold under store brand names.

The directory is published as part of the federal department's *Energuide* program. The program requires an energy consumption label to be affixed prominently on various major household appliances. These now include refrigerators, freezers, electric ranges, clothes washers and dishwashers.

The **new directory is available** from offices of Consumer and Corporate Affairs Canada, most major utilities, the Consumers' Association of Canada, manufacturers and retailers. A similar directory for refrigerators and freezers has already been published and is also available from the above sources. One giving information on electric ranges is currently being prepared for distribution during the fall of 1981.

Copyright Legislation

The federal government is planning to draft new copyright legislation within the next 12 months. The existing Copyright Act came into effect in 1924 and although it has been amended several times, it has not been revised substantially since its adoption. Groups such as the arts community and legal specialists have argued for years for a revised Copyright Act because the current legislation predates such developments as videotape, cable television, satellite TV broadcasting, photocopiers and electronic information storage and retrieval systems.

Nestlé Center for Nutrition

Nestlé has established a new subsidiary, the Nestlé Coordination Center for Nutrition, Inc. (NCCN) in Washington, D.C.

A central function of the Center will be to serve as an information source concerning key issues in nutrition which are of interest to professional and lay publics alike. The NCCN will have a capability for search and synopsis of nutrition information not now available from many other sources and will cooperate with international development and health agencies.

Another important function of the Center, will be to coordinate Nestlé grants to universities and organizations in the United States and developing nations for research in nutrition and the training of nutrition specialists. The focus of the Center's funded research will be projects aimed at helping to solve the problems of undernutrition in the world. ●

INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION FOR HOME ECONOMICS

Individual Membership Application Form ☐ New
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City, Province ____________________ Postal Code __________

The CHEA National Office will accept IFHE individual memberships provided this application is accompanied by a cheque or money order in Canadian funds, payable to:

Canadian Home Economics Association
203 Burnside Building
151 Slater Street
Ottawa, Canada K1P 5H3

YEARLY FEE:
January 1 to December 31, 60 French Francs — $16.00 Canadian funds.

"Membership" Power
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CONDITIONS OF MEMBERSHIP

MEMBERSHIP CLASSES

There are five classes of membership: active including life, associate, student, reserve and honorary.

ACTIVE MEMBERS

1. Active membership shall be limited to individuals with the following qualifications whose application is approved by the Board of Directors:
   a. a degree in Home Economics from a recognized university, or
   b. a degree in a related field from a recognized university who by interest and activity serves the goals of the Association or,
   c. was a member in good standing of the unincorporated body known as the Canadian Home Economics Association at the time of the incorporation of the Association and who maintains continuous membership in good standing of this Association.
   d. The Board of Directors may grant active membership to one who, after five years of associate membership in the Association, is deemed to have made an active contribution to the Association or the profession.
2. An individual who has had continuous active membership for at least ten years immediately prior to applying for life membership may become a life member subject to the approval of the Board of Directors.
3. An active member, in recognition of outstanding contribution to the Association over a period of years, may be awarded a special honorary life membership, subject to the approval of the Board of Directors.

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Associate membership shall be limited to individuals with the following qualifications whose application is approved by the Board of Directors:

A secondary school certificate and:
   a. a Home Economics diploma granted by a recognized college or School of Technology after two years of successful study, or
   b. a provincial Home Economics teacher's certificate, or
   c. a provincial teacher's certificate with additional training in Home Economics equivalent to at least one year of successful study.

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Student membership shall be granted to a person enrolled in a **full-time** undergraduate program at any Canadian university, faculty, college, school or department which is eligible to send voting delegates to the A.C.H.E.S. convention.

RESERVE MEMBERS

Reserve membership may be granted on application to the Board of Directors to those who qualify as active or associate members, and who are now:
   a. graduate students enrolled in full-time post graduate study in home economis or a related field for a minimum of six months of the membership year May 1 — April 30
   b. home economist employed on an average of less than 10 hours per week
   c. retired

HONORARY MEMBERS

Honorary membership is granted by unanimous vote of the Board of Directors to a non-member who has rendered exceptional service to the field of Home Economics:

FEES —

Active and Associate members (annual)	$ 55.00
Life Membership	825.00
Student members (annual)	17.00
Reserve members (annual)	27.50

Membership includes subscription to the Canadian Home Economics Journal published Spring, Summer, Fall Winter
Membership year — May 1 to April 30

Home economics graduates from Canadian universities for the year immediately following graduation with their qualifying degree may become members of the Association at a fee which is one-half the current active/associate membership fee.

CANADIAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION
L'ASSOCIATION CANADIENNE D'ECONOMIE FAMILIALE
151 rue Slater Street, Ottawa, Ontario K1P 5H3 (613) 232-9791

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The Canadian Home Economics Association
151 Slater Street
Ottawa, Ontario
K1P 5H3

Completez les deux côtés et retournez à:

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- * membership directory
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and provides its members with opportunities for

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CANADIAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION
L'ASSOCIATION CANADIENNE D'ECONOMIE FAMILIALE
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Your interest ______________________

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OVERSEAS OPPORTUNITIES

CUSO, Canada's largest non-government international development organization, is seeking applicants for these challenging positions overseas:

Food Industry Technologist — to teach food technology courses and set up operation of a pilot tropical fruit juice and preserving plant at a Peruvian university. Food scientists or engineers with food industry technology experience are invited to apply.

Industrial Microbiologist — to teach, do research and act as consultant to the staff of a Peruvian university and the community generally. Applicants should have an M.Sc. or Ph.D. in microbiology and relevant experience.

Nutritionists — to work with the Papua New Guinea Health Department in community extension work. Applicants should have a B.A. or B.Sc. in nutrition and community experience or an agricultural background.

Assignments: Two years.
Salary: Adequate to cover overseas living costs with good fringe benefits.

CUSO

For more information contact:
CUSO Agriculture-GK1 Program
151 Slater Street
Ottawa, Ontario K1P 5H5

Readership Survey
CHEJ — Volume 31

The 1981 CHEJ Readership Survey brought response from 54 of our readers — 21 more than last year. The questionnaire was shortened this year asking only for a list of articles of special interest or use, suggestions for future themes or articles, and offers to write book reviews, articles or items for *What's New*.

Our readers indicated that they are interested in articles from all areas of our field with those concerning family studies (social issues), food and nutrition, education, consumer studies and management being mentioned most often. The regular departments continue to be popular.

Many good suggestions were made for future articles and as many as possible will be followed. It seems to be important to our readers that we keep a balance in the content published. Many are interested in knowing what other home economists are doing, so plans are being made to start a regular column entitled, "On the Job".

In answer to the question, "Are you willing to write an article, book review or item for What's New?", the response was very good. The results were: book reviews — 25, articles — 21, and What's New — 1. All were acknowledged and already three articles have been submitted.

The editors wish to thank everyone who returned the questionnaire. Your comments and offers to assist are most encouraging and help keep our "noses to the grindstone". *Late* responses are still welcome. ●

UNIVERSITY OF SASKATCHEWAN
College of Home Economics
Applications are invited for a position at the Assistant/Associate Professor level in the College's Division of Family and Consumer Studies. Either a PhD or Law degree, together with study or work experience in a home economics program setting, is desired. Duties will include teaching courses in family and consumer studies, and developing independent research. Salaries are presently under review, but 1980/81 floors are: Assistant Professor, $21,120; Associate Professor, $27,478. Those interested in this position are asked to send a letter of application and vitae with the names of three references to: Dr. Thomas Abernathy, College of Home Economics, University of Saskatchewan, S7N 0W0. Applications are accepted until the position is filled.

The list of the **CHEA Board of Directors** does not appear in this issue. It can be found in your Membership Directory.

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Conference 1982

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